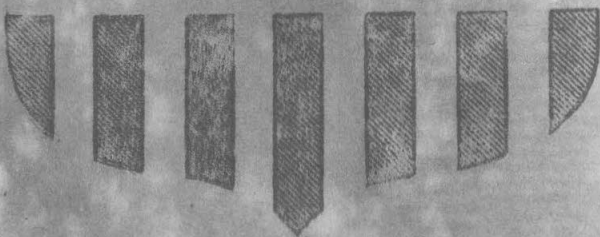


Curriculum

Planning



UNITED STATES OF AMERICA





**CURRICULUM
PLANNING**

EDUCATION FOR LIVING SERIES

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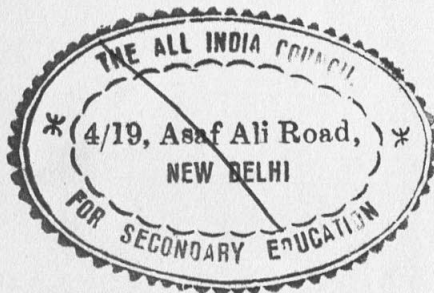
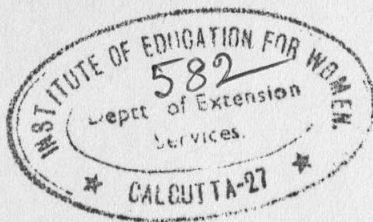
H. H. REMMERS

CURRICULUM PLANNING

By

EDWARD A. KRUG

*School of Education
University of Wisconsin*



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CURRICULUM PLANNING

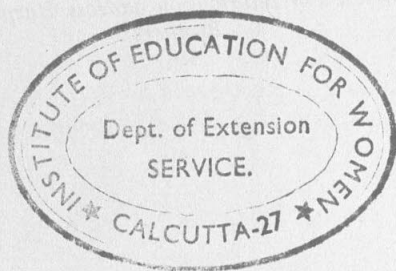
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To
John Guy Fowlkes



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EDITOR'S FOREWORD

THE curriculum is now being defined—at least by educational theorists concerned with the problem—as all the experiences of the learner that are under the control of the school. The dynamic nature of our society guarantees that the organization and revision of the curriculum is, and will be, a perennial problem. Two quotations point up the dilemmas created for us: on the one hand, the inertia of the static, and, on the other, the urgencies of a changing world. The first of these appears on the fly-leaf of Chapman and Counts, *Principles of Education* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1924).

Greeting his pupils, the master asked: "What would you learn of me?" And the reply came:

"How shall we care for our bodies?"

"How shall we rear our children?"

"How shall we work together?"

"How shall we live with our fellow man?"

"How shall we play?"

"For what ends shall we live?"

And the teacher pondered these words, and sorrow was in his heart, for his own learning touched not these things.

A quarter of a century later the Education Policies Commission (*Purposes of Education in America*, p. 147) has this to say:

Setting: A democracy struggling against strangulation in an era marked by confused loyalties in the political realm, by unrest and deprivation, by much unnecessary ill health, by high-pressure propaganda, by war, by many broken and ill-adjusted homes, by foolish spending, by high crime rates, by bad housing, and by a myriad of other urgent, real human problems. And what are the children in this school, in this age, in this culture, learning? They are learning that the square of the sum of two numbers equals the sum of their squares plus twice their product; that Millard Fillmore was the thirteenth President of the United States and held office from January 10, 1850, to March 4, 1853; that the capital of Honduras is

Tegucigalpa; that there were two Peloponnesian wars and three Punic wars; that Latin verbs meaning to command, obey, please, displease, resist, and the like take the dative; and that a gerund is a neuter verbal noun used in the oblique cases of the singular and governing the same case as its verb.

In the present book Professor Krug presents the rationale, techniques, and procedures appropriate to a democratic society, and he does so with both feet firmly planted on realities as thoughtful educators see them. Were the editor so minded he could at this point give rein to whatever sadistic tendencies he has and point with smug scorn to the authoritarian from-above-down character of much previous and, indeed, present curriculum construction. A wiser and more constructive course is for him to point to and emphasize Professor Krug's sane, thoughtful, and forward-looking presentation of the ways in which the schools can most effectively implement the values of our society.

Since all are concerned in the effects of the curriculum-patrons as well as school personnel, it follows that this book is of interest to all. Intelligent citizens will find it of interest as will those more professionally involved in the most important business of education.

H. H. REMMERS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I WISH to express my appreciation to the many people who helped me in the preparation of this book. Thanks are due particularly to John Guy Fowlkes, School of Education, University of Wisconsin, for his initial suggestion that I write the book and for his encouragement and helpful guidance throughout. I have also received valuable editorial assistance and suggestions from H. H. Remmers, Director of the Bureau of Educational Reference, Purdue University.

For the past four years I have had the privilege of being associated with the Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Planning Program, a project sponsored by the State Department of Public Instruction and the Wisconsin Education Association. The classroom teachers and administrators in this program have provided an inspiring example of curriculum development in action, and I have found my work with them to be a most valuable experience. I appreciate also the many helpful suggestions received from graduate students at the University of Wisconsin and at Stanford University and I am particularly grateful to those who took time to read and criticize this manuscript. I should like also to thank Professor Chester Harris of the University of Wisconsin School of Education faculty for reading and criticizing a portion of the manuscript.

EDWARD A. KRUG

December, 1949

CURRICULUM PLANNING

INTRODUCTION

EDUCATION has become the symbol of hope and confidence in the future of mankind. In almost every discussion of the problems we face—problems of achieving world peace, human brotherhood, personal happiness, political, social, and economic problems—someone sooner or later observes that education can lead the way to a better world. Of course there are the cynics who speak slightly of “mere schooling” as a “panacea”; but the majority of us are still trusting enough to believe that there is something to the idea that human beings can direct their destinies and that this process called education has a significant part to play in this direction.

Although education goes on in all aspects of human living, most societies have set up for its specific application the institutions we call schools. These institutions use a variety of means to promote what the society considers desirable learnings. To the sum total of the means so employed we apply the term “curriculum.” In other words, curriculum becomes the instrumentality by which the schools seek to translate our hopes for education into concrete reality. Working on curriculum, then, shapes up as a matter of crucial importance not only for school teachers, but for all who live in the society which sets up the school.

Continuous curriculum planning is desirable at any time, but it appears to be a matter of crucial necessity for those of us living in the present world. We can identify, particularly, five urgent needs in contemporary society, all of which are closely related to the purposes and activities of the school.

One of these is the need for reducing or eliminating entirely the lag between mechanical and social progress which is an underlying factor in the major social problems of our times. Our educational system has produced human beings gifted beyond the dreams of past generations in controlling and improving the physical environment. But it has not been conspicuously successful in producing

people who can effectively solve the problems of human relationships in a complex, interdependent world.

A second need is for helping individual human beings achieve greater success in living with themselves, in facing and solving personal problems, and in developing those resources and strengths to which we give the name of mental health.

A third need is to realize more fully the promises and possibilities of democracy as a way of life in all areas of human life—personal, political, spiritual, economic, social.

A fourth need is to develop more active and interested participation on the part of all citizens in the problems and concerns of their local neighborhoods and communities.

The fifth need hangs ominously over all humanity today. It is that of establishing permanent peace among the nations of the world. This need is, of course, closely tied up with the others, particularly that of eliminating social lag. We are well aware of the fact today that meeting this need is an indispensable condition for the survival of humanity.

All these are reasons why curriculum planning cannot wait, why it is among the most practical activities on which human beings today can expend energy, money, intelligence, and skill.

This book deals with curriculum planning practices, with the problems involved in making curriculum planning an effective process for dealing with major social needs today. In this book we shall become very concerned with what seem to be small, specific details of these practices. There may be times when these practices almost appear as ends in themselves. This concern with details is inescapable. The curriculum planning process will and does in fact involve every day a great deal of hard work on details. But this concern with details also has its dangers. Because of these dangers we must constantly remind ourselves that we are carrying on these practices not to generate more and more routines of curriculum planning, but to achieve the living reality of a great promise.

WHAT IT MEANS TO WORK ON CURRICULUM

TO BEGIN with, we must recognize some sharp differences of opinion on what should constitute the activities of curriculum planning.

Many teachers identify curriculum planning with the writing of courses of study, in particular with the outlining of content to be covered in the various school subjects. These course-of-study writing programs often go by the name "curriculum construction" and suggest the operations of putting up a building or installing a piece of machinery. This approach has the advantage of being tangible and specific, and is therefore considered practical and down-to-earth.

But not all teachers go along with this. Others feel that the outlining of content is an inadequate approach to curriculum planning. They want curriculum planning to concern itself with rich experiences for children, rather than with materials on paper. They deplore the preoccupation of many curriculum-planning programs with the preparation of bulletins, courses, and outlines. They insist on an expanded definition of curriculum itself.

This second point of view provides a necessary corrective to curriculum-planning programs based exclusively on outlining subject matter. But it suffers from vagueness and also from the fact that it is often advocated by curriculum theorists rather than by classroom teachers and administrators in the public schools. Teachers who take part in curriculum programs which do not "get things down on paper" quickly often become lost and confused. They insist plaintively after several discussions of "needs" or "values" that they aren't getting anywhere!

This conflict between the down-to-earth school people on the one hand and the curriculum philosophers on the other has served to sharpen an educational issue. It has served also to promote acrimonious contention in an area where coöperative effort is sadly needed. It has probably slowed down the progress of American schools toward a program of education adequate in terms of present-day realities and problems.

There is much substantial agreement between the two viewpoints. The "feet-on-the-ground" people agree with the curriculum theorist that whether the program consists of "experience" or "subject matter," it must be based on some conception of educational goals or purposes. Likewise, sooner or later even the curriculum philosopher breaks down and gets something on paper, although he may seek to provide some elaborate rationalization for that concession.

The curriculum problem, of course, is a single large problem, characterized by a high degree of unity. It may be stated in this way: "How can the schools help children and youth learn what they need?" Or it may be put like this: "How can we, the people, direct educational change in an orderly manner along lines of desired objectives?" But working on this problem involves a number of varied activities, all of them essential to a continuing solution of the curriculum problem. These varied activities naturally attract people with differing personalities and with differing strengths and contributions. Curriculum theorists and practical, sometimes skeptical, school people are all necessary to the curriculum-planning team.

Moreover, there are important areas of fundamental agreement. The following are suggested as convictions or points of view widely shared in curriculum development today (these features of curriculum planning are included in the presentation in Chapter IX): (1) that curriculum includes all the learning experiences which children and youth have under the direction of the school; (2) that coöperative effort and large-scale participation are desirable; (3) that curriculum planning should result in some kind of concrete help for classroom teachers and others involved in the teaching process; (4) that curriculum planning should be continuous rather than spasmodic in character.

Achieving these features of curriculum planning becomes, then, a problem of how people of differing temperaments and potential contributions can work together on the jobs that need to be done.

WHAT GOES ON IN CURRICULUM PLANNING

The jobs to be done in curriculum planning may be defined in five broad categories of activities which are both theoretical and practical in nature. No curriculum-planning program which includes effort along these lines can resolve itself into an either-or proposition with reference to theory vs. practice.

These five categories of activities should furthermore be thought of as concurrent and not as sequential. All of them should be proceeding simultaneously. We do not want to think of them as step one, step two, and so on, but rather as continuing and complementary types of activities within the framework of curriculum planning as a whole.

Defining or Identifying the Functions of the School

Sometimes we hear protests against "hashing over objectives." It is true that many programs of studying objectives have been wearisome, repetitious, and far removed from the actual conditions and needs of children. Too many elaborate statements of objectives have been fought over, refined and super-refined, and then relegated to the files while the school goes merrily on without discernible change.

Yet we cannot escape the responsibility of defining or identifying the basic reasons or purposes for which the school exists. There is no single practical problem to be decided which can be discussed or approached without reference to the guiding philosophy of education involved. Administrative or teaching policies evolved without reference to the purposes of education become mere matters of expediency. From a practical standpoint, a hand-to-mouth, day-to-day shifting of policies and practices simply to avoid trouble is the very best way to get into trouble.

When Alice asked the Cheshire Cat which road she should take, the answer came back that it depended on where she wanted to go. She replied that she didn't much care, and the cat pointed out that

then it didn't make any difference which road she took. Of course, she protested, she didn't care so long as she went *somewhere*. The cat observed that she was bound to do that if she just walked long enough. Many specific questions which plague school faculties similarly don't make any difference in situations where people don't care where they go. Single vs. double periods, annual vs. semiannual promotions, honor societies or none, automatic promotion vs. some other kind, the number of periods in the day, the length of the periods—all of these are significant and vital questions when approached in terms of the job to be done in education. But for a community or a faculty unconcerned about its basic direction, such questions might well be settled by tossing a coin.

So one of the most important problems facing curriculum leaders is how to give this phase of educational planning the importance it deserves and at the same time to avoid the mistakes sometimes made in connection with it.

Developing the All-School Program

Along with identifying the purposes of the school as a whole, it is necessary to keep in mind the activities of the school as a whole. Everything done in the school adds up to the total curriculum—classroom instruction, student activities, community relationships, work experience, school parties, counseling. All these phases of school life should be reevaluated continuously in the light of the goals of education. Only in this way can we avoid an unbalanced or poorly balanced program—that is, the overstressing of one phase of school life and the underemphasizing or even the exclusion of other important phases. A school which features a good student activity program and a highly developed social life and lets its classroom teaching suffer has an unbalanced program. So has the school which features high-quality classroom instruction but neglects out-of-class school activities.

The classroom instruction program in itself has many phases and plays a large part in any total school program. This aspect of the curriculum involves setting up the program of studies, determining the subjects or fields of study to be offered, and relating these decisions to the class schedule, the combinations of periods, and the structure of the school day.

Outlining the Instructional Fields and Other Aspects of the Total School Program

It is important to examine carefully the details of each aspect of the school program and to prepare guide lines which will help in doing the actual job.

For example, a school may need a student-activities manual or handbook for the use of the faculty and student body. A counselors' handbook or the outline of a testing program may need to be worked out. Or the teachers might want to develop a guide to field trips and community visits. Such materials on paper should be developed to meet actual needs and will, of course, vary from one school to the next, or from one year to the next in the same school.

Much of the outlining on paper, however, will be done in the areas of formalized classroom instruction—language arts, social studies, mathematics, science, industrial arts, and the like. Traditionally this has taken the form of “course of study” writing, and in its most regrettable aspects has been confined to formal content outlines. It is against this kind of curriculum activity that curriculum theorists have reacted most sharply.

Here again the real issue is how this need can be met in a manner consistent with the best objectives of education. What kinds of materials and outlines on paper can really help set the guide lines for a good program of studies and for good classroom teaching?

Providing Specific Help to the Classroom Teacher

Many teachers want something to go on from day to day, but not necessarily a set of rigid prescriptions. They want specific help to bolster their security and personal morale. They want, and ought to have, suggestions for activities and materials. Many programs for the improvement of teaching have failed because teachers could not find concrete suggestions for activities to replace the ones to which they were accustomed. It is precisely on this point that specific teaching aids are needed.

Such aids are often organized into “units,” a term about which many theoretical and practical controversies have taken place. One useful type is the resource unit. This type of curriculum material is

unusual in that it meets the approval of both the curriculum theorist and the down-to-earth schoolman.

Teaching and Learning

The curriculum comes to life in the classroom, school, or community teaching situation, in the pupil-teacher relationships, and in the activities carried on. Good teaching and good learning are the reasons for which all other aspects of curriculum development exist. Except for this, there is no significance to the study of objectives, the planning of the all-school program, or the preparation of outlines and resource units. So curriculum development cannot be thought of as something which merely leads up to teaching; it must include it.

This point of view concerning curriculum development is received most sympathetically by those who feel there is an essential unity in content and method. Unfortunately, there has been a tendency in the past to separate these two aspects of the teaching and learning situation. This has resulted in the identification of curriculum with content only and in the setting forth of method as a separate problem. There is more than an academic distinction involved here. What a student learns depends on the total environment, and the total learning environment depends on the "how" as well as the "what" of teaching.

A curriculum development program therefore should include much emphasis on teaching procedures, the classroom environment, and the nature of pupil-teacher relationships. No curriculum development which merely keeps abreast of the times in its content can be considered adequate if this new content is badly taught.

WHO CAN HELP DO THESE FIVE JOBS?

Involved in the educational planning at any time are the following groups: (1) state-wide leadership groups; (2) local leadership groups; (3) classroom teachers; (4) lay people; (5) children and youth in school. Not one of these groups is equipped to do the whole job of curriculum development. Likewise, not one of these groups should or can be left out. But it is also true that these groups are not equally fitted to participate in all five of the major curriculum development tasks. A major problem of curriculum develop-

ment practice today is so to organize the program that each group will take part in that phase where it can make an effective contribution. Final answers are by no means clear, but we do have some leads and hunches.

There has been much controversy on this matter. State leadership groups, particularly state departments of public instruction, are accused either of dictating curriculum to the local communities or of failing to exercise adequate leadership. Some theorists regard the local group as the court of last resort on curriculum questions, while others condemn local autonomy as a kind of neoparochialism. There are administrators who organize all their teachers into "curriculum committees," and there are others who feel that classroom teachers' competence and training do not justify their having any opinions whatsoever. Professional educators sometimes tell lay people to avoid meddling with the schools and sometimes bring forth all their eloquence to "interpret" the program to the public. Lay people, on the other hand, have veered between complete apathy to curriculum, on the one hand, over to excited controversy about curriculum, on the other. And finally, children and youth in school are often told that their job is to learn what adults think good for them, while at other times they find their opinions on the curriculum most earnestly and respectfully solicited.

Let us examine, therefore, some of the peculiar responsibilities and contributions which each of these groups might make to the total process of educational planning.

State Leadership Groups

This usually means the staff of the state department of public instruction. But it may also include members of state-wide curriculum committees, consultants drawn from staffs of universities and teachers' colleges, and anyone else who is called in to help take a look at education on a state-wide basis.

The state-wide leadership group is of the utmost importance in curriculum planning. We have identified education as a government enterprise, and in our system of government have vested the basic controls in the government machinery of our forty-eight states. The exercising of this control makes necessary the assuming of some kind of leadership responsibilities. Furthermore, only a state-wide

agency is of sufficient scope to insure educational planning on all fronts. Leadership cannot function adequately through the scattered activities of hundreds of local communities only. The people of a state rightly make it their business to take steps to lead toward the best in education for all the children of that state.

But this leadership responsibility does not justify state-wide prescription of curriculum. For state leadership to prescribe curriculum means that state leadership must do all the work. This means that local communities do little or none and that local school and lay people are deprived of the learning experience which comes only through participation. What, then, can state leadership do to live up to its responsibility without exercising arbitrary control and domination?

Its first and most important job is to provide help to the local communities in the study of educational purposes. A group of local teachers or lay people getting together for a discussion of the functions of education will get along better if it has available a good guide to such discussion. Such study and discussion guides can be prepared in the state leadership group for distribution in many local communities. The use of a common discussion guide by local groups is designed to stimulate discussion of common questions. For example, see the following:

Curriculum Guiding Committee, Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Planning Program, *The Task of the School and What Is the Job of Public Education?*, Bulletins No. 1 and 2, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, 1945.

State of Minnesota, Department of Education, *A Guide for Better Instruction in Minnesota Schools*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 1, The Department of Education, St. Paul, 1946.

Montana State Department of Public Instruction, *A Cooperative Program for Secondary Curriculum Revision in Montana Schools*, Bulletin No. 1, The Department of Public Instruction, Helena, 1945.

State of Michigan Department of Public Instruction, *Planning and Working Together: A Guide to Curriculum Development in Michigan Public Schools*, Bulletin No. 337, The Department of Public Instruction, Lansing, 1945.

Some local school people undoubtedly want the state leadership group to furnish a statement of state-wide educational objectives. It would be a mistake to do so in most situations. Such a state-wide

list gives an impression of finality. Local groups can "accept" it and, having done so, proceed to forget about it. Somewhere in the archives of many state departments it is possible to find such listings, long since "accepted" and gathering dust these many years. On the other hand, state leadership cannot walk out on its responsibility in helping to define educational purposes. The preparation of study guides for local groups is perhaps the most adequate way in which state leadership can be exercised on this point.

State supervisors can serve an additional function in acting as consultants in local meetings and as enthusiasts in stirring up local interest in curriculum study. If a state department prepares a study guide on the objectives of education, many local groups will never even hear of it unless state department supervisors advertise its existence and urge its use.

In the second phase of curriculum planning—translating objectives into all-school programs—consultant help from state department supervisors can be most valuable. This kind of help may not be necessary in city systems, or in county systems with well-organized supervisory and consultant services, but it is a basic necessity in all other situations. Principals of small high schools, loaded with teaching assignments and trying to meet numerous community demands for special services, seem to have little time or opportunity for reflection on the total school program. Consider also the varied and strenuous life of the one-room rural teacher, who also has responsibility for a total school program on his shoulders! A friendly state supervisor, sitting down with the teaching staff of a small high school or with the one-man or one-woman staff of the rural elementary school, can bring state-wide perspective to bear on the problem.

Consultants representing the state-wide leadership group need not be drawn exclusively from the state department supervisory staff. It would be well for the state departments to coördinate the consultant services from state universities, state teachers' colleges, and private colleges, and to take the initiative in providing for the use of such services. Most states have a lot of power available from such sources, but at the present time its use is spotty, depending almost entirely upon whether local administration can see the possibilities.

Perhaps the most controversial question of all is what state leader-

ship should do in providing courses of study or curriculum guides in the various fields, such as social studies, mathematics, and the like. Here is where many teachers feel the state department should say something "definite" and prescribe content outlines in detail. Opponents of this viewpoint claim that state-wide courses of study have long gathered dust on the shelves of local superintendents' offices.

There is little to be gained, certainly, by having the social studies teachers, for example, of each county or city group grind through the same process of producing curriculum guides. Much of the common framework could well be provided by state-wide committees in that or other fields. To do so would save much time and patience for local teachers. But, on the other hand, local groups should carefully evaluate the state-wide product for their own use. Local adaptations can be extensive or minor, but a state-wide course of study in a field should never be accepted simply because it came from a state leadership agency or group.

Resource units and other preplanning aids should be issued by state leadership groups for two purposes: (1) to illustrate types of aids; (2) to provide needed aids quickly on important and pressing current topics. For example, the introduction of the resource unit idea can be helped along by the production of actual resource units which can be picked up, looked at, and talked about. During the year 1945-1946, the the Wisconsin curriculum program distributed several mimeographed resource units to local school districts. Likewise during the years 1945-1947 there was tremendous emphasis placed by curriculum leaders on the study of world organization for peace. Teachers wanted help quickly. Here it was most appropriate for state leadership groups to step in and do a good job of unit preparation, thereby saving much time for local groups. The resource unit on atomic energy issued under the auspices of the University of Illinois provided a fine example of meeting a real school need quickly and efficiently.¹ On the other hand, state departments need not take on a publisher's role and produce teaching aids on all topics. Much of the value lies in the experience of pro-

¹ Harold C. Hand (editor), "Living in the Atomic Age: A Resource Unit for Teachers in Secondary Schools," Educational Research Circular No. 57 (Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education), *University of Illinois Bulletin*, XLIV, No. 23 (Dec. 3, 1946).

ducing such materials, and this experience should be provided for classroom teachers on the job, not solely for selected editorial specialists in a state office.

The role of state leadership in part five of curriculum planning—the translating of all this into actual teaching—again goes back to furnishing consultant services. Part of this involves the conversion of state department supervisors who have placed major stress on inspection activities. No disparagement of inspection activities is intended. Especially in states where county supervision is weak and inefficient, state departments must continue to carry that responsibility. But state leadership demands more than inspection; it demands active on-the-job help for classroom teachers, especially those in one-room rural elementary schools and village high schools. Again the presence or absence of county leadership is a crucial factor.

Role of the Local Leadership Group

Local leadership includes not only the city or county superintendents of schools and the building principals, but also the supervisory staff, the coördinators, if any, and those classroom teachers who wish to exert leadership by serving on important committees. This group, in general, carries the responsibility for encouraging local teachers and lay people to make use of the help offered by state leadership.

It is at the local level that written statements of objectives or philosophy might be developed, using the state-wide discussion guides as helps. The responsibility for developing the all-school program also rests with local leadership. Every all-school program must be tailor-made for the local circumstances. There can be no duplication of an all-school program from one school to the next, or from one community to the next. Obviously, no state authority can outline an all-school program for a local school or community. The local leadership group must face up to this task—that of obtaining widespread teacher and lay participation in meeting the issues involved in the all-school program and of making the major decisions necessary for putting any program into effect. And, of course, the work on the all-school program must tie directly back to the formulation of objectives or philosophy. Otherwise the time spent on objectives or philosophy has been wasted.

Local leadership groups also provide the most convenient channels through which to route recommended curriculum guides in the various broad fields. A state-wide committee in mathematics, for example, which has produced a suggested framework depends on local leadership for calling the very existence of that report to the attention of teachers who should study and react to it.

The importance of the local leadership group certainly cannot be overemphasized. Fine programs of curriculum study have been launched in many of our states. The state leadership groups give these programs widespread publicity in national journals read by other curriculum leaders. But all too often the classroom teachers within those states know less about the program than do curriculum leaders outside. Sometimes we encounter teachers from those states who don't even know the program exists! Only active, interested local leadership can prevent such a state of affairs from developing.

Classroom Teachers

Much lip service is paid to teacher participation in curriculum work. Yet there are those who believe that classroom teachers can play little or no constructive part in the process. They look to "specialists" for the "answers." The board of education of a large American city several years ago provided an extreme example of this viewpoint in an attack on a textbook series. This attack was made on the charge that the books were too difficult for junior-high-school children to use. Instead of asking the junior-high-school teachers about this, the board consulted professors from nearby universities.

On the other hand, we have sometimes expected miracles to be accomplished by having the teachers plan the curriculum. Enthusiastic administrators putting this notion to work have organized their teachers into committees to carry on curriculum work. Naturally, this has resulted in hours of extra work loaded onto an already heavy schedule of classroom teaching. It has produced reaction and resentment in many quarters. Some teachers declare that this is the administrator's job, not theirs. Others see it as a task to be performed, often unrelated to their own teaching. At its worst it degenerates into the writing of content outlines only, or into clipping and pasting other people's content outlines!

Where, then, do we come out on teacher participation? It can be

said that every teacher should take part in study and discussion of the objectives of education—in relation to problems that teachers recognize and consider important. Also, teachers should have every right to present their views on problems of the all-school program and to take part in discussions of those problems. Every teacher should at some time (but not all the time) participate in the work of a committee, dealing either with his own teaching field or with the overall problems of curriculum at the elementary or secondary level. This last activity can be made more rewarding and sensible by starting from suggestions made by state-wide committees rather than by going through the same process from A to Z in every local school system. The job of the local committee becomes that of adapting the state-wide suggestions to local circumstances.

Most of all, however, teachers should take part in those curriculum-planning activities which come closest to their own classroom work. This means working together on suggested activities and materials which can be used by students. It means talking over and writing down ideas which can be used *immediately*, the next morning perhaps, rather than postponed to the indefinite date when the "new curriculum" goes into effect. The construction of resource units on an informal basis provides one of the very best means of accomplishing this. A resource unit may be defined as a collection of suggested activities and materials organized around a given topic. It may be long or short, elaborate or simple, but the heart of it consists of materials which can be used with students and in activities which students can carry on. The purpose of a resource unit is to help the teacher preplan for his responsibility in student-teacher planning. Much of the value of it lies in the experience of making it. Resource unit construction by small groups of teachers appears to be one of the most promising down-to-earth activities for classroom teachers in curriculum development programs today. (See Chapter V for fuller treatment of resource units.)

It may seem obvious that the teacher's most important job in curriculum development is to do the best possible job of teaching, but the importance of this statement cannot be exaggerated. It is in the teaching-learning relationship that the curriculum comes alive. Administrators and supervisors can hamper and sabotage a curriculum-planning effort in many ingenious and interesting ways, but

it is only the classroom teachers who, in the last analysis, can either make it or break it. Therefore, all teacher participation in curriculum planning must be judged in the light of the criteria involved in better teaching. (See Chapter VI for treatment of the teaching-learning process in curriculum planning.)

Lay People

The schools belong to the general public; citizens in general, therefore, should have much to say about the curriculum. On the other hand, professional educators have received special training for this work and should be expected to know more about it than anyone else. On what basis, then, can lay people participate in curriculum development programs? Where does their effective contribution begin and end? Wherein should school people defer to the fact that the schools belong not to them, but to the community as a whole? Wherein should lay people defer to the professional training and judgment of the teacher?

Clearly, since the schools belong to the people as a whole, the development of school purposes should involve the participation of the people as a whole. Conflicts should not occur between lay people and school people on basic educational purposes; when they do occur, the point of view of lay people should prevail. When agreement on purposes is reached, lay people should defer to professional judgment on specific techniques used in carrying out the purposes. Four of the major jobs of curriculum planning—setting up the all-school programs, outlining the broad fields of instruction, providing aids for teachers, and teaching—are therefore generally more the responsibilities of professional educators.

The major problem involved in lay participation, however, is not that of resolving conflicts, but of arousing lay interest. It is one of the responsibilities of local leadership to widen the base of community interest in educational objectives. Here again a good discussion guide is necessary. It should contain questions, not answers, but the questions should direct attention to all important areas of youth problems today. The preparation of such a guide can conveniently be carried out by the state leadership group.

Teachers and administrators must be careful to maintain the discussion approach in working with lay people on educational pur-

poses. Too often the members of the professional group try to sell or interpret their philosophy to the lay people. They devote their efforts to urging a point of view rather than to raising important and critical questions.

The setting of this discussion is also important. Often we try to bring lay people into our own home grounds in a school or P.T.A. meeting. There is no objection to this, but there is also much to be gained in going out to the lay people in their already existing organizations to stir up discussion of educational purposes.

In some curriculum programs, both state-wide and at the local level, the leadership groups have tried to secure lay participation through appointment of a formal committee, with representatives from various lay interests. Such committees usually include representatives of labor, industry, business, social welfare agencies, the press, etc. Naturally, a small committee will not in itself provide widespread participation, and it is unwise to expect the individual members of it to speak for their organizations or groups. But a committee of this kind can carry on one very important function—not to discuss educational objectives themselves, but to plan a campaign to involve many lay people in such discussions. It should be the job of the labor representative on such a committee, for example, not to pontificate on “what labor thinks,” but to promote widespread discussion of educational purposes among many members of labor unions. Similarly, the chamber of commerce representative should concern himself with promoting such widespread discussion among many businessmen.

The salvation of American education (or of American life generally) depends on widespread and effective interest in education on the part of people who are not professional educators. This group includes not only parents but all other citizens whose lives affect and are affected by the course of our society. Such widespread and effective interest in education can come about through discussion and participation. Viewed in these terms, lay participation in curriculum planning becomes not a form of administrative window dressing or a new kind of public relations, but a vital necessity to the healthy functioning of American democratic life.

The success of lay group discussion should not be judged in terms of the speed with which lay people reach agreement on fundamen-

tals. More important are the interest and concern which may be developed. A newspaper editor took home a lay discussion guide called *What Is the Job of Public Education?* (Bulletin No. 2 of the Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Planning Program). That evening a group of friends came to play bridge. The editor raised some of the questions in the pamphlet, and the group got so excited that it talked education until three in the morning and never got to playing bridge at all! The editor felt that the pamphlet was a failure since the group didn't agree. Viewed from this other standpoint, the pamphlet was a success in the degree of interest generated. If this particular situation could be reproduced many times in American life, if more American citizens found curriculum a more exciting topic than bridge, we would need have little concern about the future of our country and its democracy.

The following is included as an example of lay participation in a rural-village situation:

The Village of Middleton, Wisconsin, is fortunate in having an active organization known as The Middleton Graded School Mothers' Club. The Club has always been interested in providing materials of instruction and equipment which were considered above and beyond those that are ordinarily provided directly by so-called "tax money." During the first meeting of the school year of 1946-47 the principal of the school suggested among other things that the present school year be used to concentrate upon the idea of happy child growth through parent-teacher cooperation in directly solving or at least working on problems in and associated with the school. The more than one hundred mothers were asked to set up their own machinery for the purpose of accomplishing this end. They were also invited to furnish a committee to sit in with the teachers of Western Dane County in the curriculum activities of the county.

At the first meeting of the Western Dane Co. teachers in Middleton, on October 8th, three members of the Middleton Club and two from the Highlands Mendota Beach School area were present. These members attended the general meeting and then when the teachers formed smaller groups for specific work they, also, were given a room in which to meet by themselves. The principal of the Graded School at Middleton met with this lay group and introduced several bulletins of the Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Planning Program as a basis for further work. The five laymen present became quite enthusiastic over the possibilities

and decided to call another meeting immediately in which other interested laymen from both the Middleton and Highlands Mendota Beach area were to be invited. The second meeting was held at the Highlands School and approximately fifty men and women attended. At this meeting a permanent organization was set up. In order to make it easy for the members to meet and consider which problems should be considered, it was decided that two groups should be formed, one to be a Middleton group and the other to be composed of persons from the Highlands area. This was done. Each of the groups held several meetings and the discussions indicated that the members were interested in many different problems associated with the school. Some were interested in the subject of health, others in teacher qualifications and salaries, and still others in recreation, etc. As a result each of the two groups again divided into two smaller groups. These smaller groups actually got down to work and held about a dozen meetings each before the end of the year. Each group had its own secretary and chairman. At the end of the year all groups came together to evaluate their work and to make plans for another year. When the teachers of Western Dane Co. held the curriculum evaluation meeting at Middleton on Monday, April 21st, the laymen presented to the group as a whole which consisted of 225 teachers, forty laymen, and 20 cooperating resource leaders and officials, a summary of their year work by using the cooperative discussion method.

During the school year of 1947-48 laymen in Western Dane County will continue participating in curriculum planning. Their participation will be on a county wide basis. A County Chairman together with six intra-county chairman have already been selected.

It is the opinion of the writer that no school system can move forward any further or faster than the public desires. A well-informed public concerning the needs and problems of the school is the best insurance that real progress will be made. Lay participation in curriculum planning appears to be the means of securing a well-informed and cooperative public.²

Children and Youth

After all, education is carried on to help children and youth. How can we involve their participation in arriving at ways of helping them? The most direct way, of course, is to ask them what they want, what they don't want, what they like, and so on. This is

² Edward G. Kromrey, Principal of Middleton Graded School, Middleton, Dane County, Wisconsin. Unpublished statement.

usually done by means of questionnaires. Sometimes it is done by having a group of school children or high-school youth put on a public panel or forum stating what they want.

It is doubtful whether such formal approaches represent the sum total of what can be done on this matter. All too often youth give stereotyped replies to such inquiries, and even in the forum or panel situation much emphasis is placed on questions dealing with externals only, such as "Should we require four years of English?" or "Why don't teachers make us work harder?" or "Why aren't schools more practical?" There is nothing wrong with this, but it just isn't good enough.

We can get a clue from the fact that the curriculum comes alive in the student-teacher relationship when the teaching and learning go on. Much more important than the question of whether we have a fourth-year English course is the question of what goes on in that or any other school situation. The everyday details of working and living together make the real curriculum, and it is on these matters that youth participation becomes vital and important. At its most significant level, the participation of children and youth in curriculum planning becomes one and the same thing with student-teacher planning in classroom instruction, in the total life of the school, and in school-community relations.

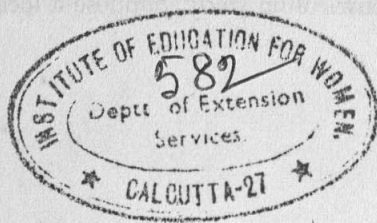
Student-teacher planning does not in all cases necessarily involve student determination of content or subject matter. Obviously, in some kinds of courses it can, while in others it is more difficult to see how this could take place. But there is more to curriculum planning than the determination of subject matter to be studied. The curriculum in each classroom or school situation includes the total experience of the child in that classroom or situation. Even in the most specialized and technical courses, where, allegedly, children and youth can play no part in planning the subject matter, many decisions must be made with respect to classroom organization, scheduling of activities, working procedures, provision for individual differences, and the like. These, too, are part of the curriculum. (See Chapter VI for more detailed discussion of student-teacher planning and provisions for carrying it out.)

There is another kind of important participation for children and youth in curriculum study. Suppose a local school system launches

an intensive study of community realities important in any consideration of the school program. Children and youth can gather and help interpret significant data on local social problems and conditions, such as health, housing, employment, and recreation. If children and youth actively participate in these studies, they will be able to take part in discussions of what to do about the conditions revealed. This setting for youth panels and the like provides something concrete to talk about and should be more effective than merely asking children and youth what they think of the school program.

Lay participation and student participation can be tied together by urging children and youth in school to take some part in community discussions of educational purposes. Sometimes it may be a group of youth in school who can get their church group, labor group, or business group interested in discussing education. Or we may employ a group of high-school youth to conduct a follow-up study of recent high-school graduates to see what leads to curriculum planning may be revealed.

A comprehensive program of curriculum planning, then, is one which deals with the five main parts of the job and which involves all agencies and groups legitimately concerned with the school program. Successful carrying out of such a program depends upon having each agency and group working on those phases of curriculum planning with which they are most naturally concerned. Obviously, lay groups will not for the most part write courses of study, construct resource units, or carry on direct teaching. Teachers will not as a total group determine the all-school program by majority vote. Children and youth will not decide whether mathematics should be retained in the school program. The state department of public instruction should not tell the local school system what it must or must not include in its course structure. And local leadership groups, administrators, supervisors, and the like, should not prescribe for the teacher the minutiae of classroom procedures. Each of these groups has a job to do with which it is legitimately concerned and which it can do successfully. Helping each group make its most important contribution to the total process is a major function of curriculum coördination and leadership in our schools today.



CURRICULUM PLANNING THROUGH LEGISLATION

Curriculum workers must face the question of the place of legislation in determining the school program. Curriculum making through legislation is a special kind of state leadership and a form of lay participation. A legislature is all-powerful, limited only by the constitution of its own state and that of the United States. It can write its own ticket on any phase of educational practice. Little wonder, then, that we have had much curriculum making through legislation in our American school systems.

Going to the legislature often appears to be the quickest way to get things done. This method seems to appeal to interest or pressure groups in our society, some good and some bad, some selfish and some unselfish. Usually the result is the prescription of another course to be inserted into the already badly squeezed school program. So we have seen such curriculum effort insert into the school program courses in health habits, temperance, racial tolerance, safety education, citizenship, and the use of dairy products. These all probably represent worthy causes of one kind or another. Often these laws are poorly enforced, and little difference in the school takes place. What, then, are the objections to this kind of curriculum planning, and what can be done about it?

The fundamental objection is that this kind of curriculum planning goes on without reference to the overall purposes of public education. Legislators faced with the question of voting yes or no on a specific course requirement will not and probably cannot do so in the light of educational philosophy. They decide the question on the basis of how it hits them at the moment or on the degree of eloquence and persuasive ability possessed by the people who are for or against it. Closely related to this is the fact that deciding whether or not to add a specific course is a professional question which cannot be adequately met except by people with professional education. Lay people have every right and every responsibility to decide on the purposes of education, but they should not by themselves make decisions on points involving special professional competence. Specific course requirements come properly under the heading of means rather than ends.

It is proposed here, therefore, that legislatures use sparingly or

not at all their legal right to prescribe curriculum. They should not and cannot, of course, surrender this right, but they should make every effort to avoid exercising it. This can come to pass only if lay pressure or interest groups find other means of working on curriculum planning. It is extremely doubtful that legislators would initiate such actions unless they were forced to do so by their constituents. The answer to this question lies in the direction of the type of comprehensive curriculum program outlined in this chapter, one which provides for widespread participation by all members of the lay public. In such a program lay people who have special interests will find constructive ways to promote these interests in connection with local and state-wide discussions of educational purposes.

One may argue that this is fanciful and unrealistic. It may be pointed out that there are pressure groups operating in all areas of modern life and that they will continue to operate in the area of education. The point, however, is not to liquidate pressure groups, but to help them find more constructive ways of promoting their interests. This can be accomplished through the widespread type of lay participation advocated in this chapter. It is part of the entire problem of developing coöperative curriculum-planning programs which involve the constructive activities of many kinds of lay and professional organizations.

SUMMARY

The curriculum problem may be stated as follows: "How can we, the people, direct educational change in an orderly manner along lines of desired objectives?" This problem can never be solved once and for all; it must be met again and solved again every day. Curriculum-planning practices are of importance as they contribute to the continuing of solving and facing of this problem in our society today.

To achieve effectiveness in dealing with this problem, a curriculum program should be characterized by comprehensiveness (dealing with the total experience of children under school direction), coöperativeness, concreteness, and continuity. These characteristics are attained to the degree that people of many differing talents and contributions find opportunity to work on the many kinds of activities involved in curriculum planning.

The activities of curriculum planning may be identified in terms of five concurrent jobs: defining the purposes of education; translating the purposes into an all-school program; outlining guide lines to phases of the all-school program; preparing aids for teaching and learning; and carrying on the teaching-learning situations.

People working on curriculum may be thought of in five groups: state leadership; local leadership; teachers; lay people; children and youth.

We may, then, restate or further define the curriculum problem somewhat in this fashion: "How can state leadership, local leadership, teachers, lay people, and children and youth work together most effectively to define educational purposes and to improve educational materials and procedures for achieving these purposes?"

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. List the arguments which you might advance for and against the idea that curriculum development should involve large-scale participation on the part of many people and groups. In your opinion, which set of arguments should be given the greatest weight?
2. Outline the types of curriculum leadership exercised on a state-wide basis in your home state. You may secure this type of information by writing to the chief state school officer of your state (usually called the "commissioner of education" or the "state superintendent"; or, if you are located near the state capital, you might visit the state department and interview the people in charge of curriculum leadership. You might wish to use the following questions as a guide to your study:
 - a. Is there a curriculum department within the state department of education? If so, what are its major activities?
 - b. If there is no designated curriculum department, who exercises curriculum leadership? How?
 - c. Does the state provide a state-wide course of study? What kind? Is its use required by schools in the state? By all schools? By some?
 - d. Does the state furnish guide lines or study bulletins for the discussion of educational philosophy or purposes?
 - e. How does the state department follow through to help teachers use the course of study or other bulletin materials?
 - f. What other curriculum leadership activities are carried on?
3. Select a local community (city or county) and describe the curriculum activities exercised by the local leadership. You can use the same

questions as suggested for a study of state leadership. The following question may be added: How does the local leadership group utilize the leadership contributions of the state?

4. Interview several classroom teachers on the question "What part do you like to play in curriculum development activities?"
5. How do you feel about the participation of lay people in curriculum development? Why? What about the participation of children and youth in school? Why?
6. Secure information on legislative requirements for the curriculum in your state. You may get these from the school code or from the general volume of statutes. How would you evaluate these legislative requirements? In what ways are the schools of your state putting these requirements into practice?

»» II ««

DEFINING EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES

Defining educational purposes is a continuous aspect of all curriculum planning. A guiding philosophy is of the greatest practical importance in dealing with every concrete problem of school operation. Yet such a formulation is not an end in itself. Its purpose is to bring about better teaching and better learning. Whether it does so depends as much upon the process by which it is developed as it does upon the official or summarized statement produced.

The purpose of this chapter is:

1. To examine the process and some of the procedures involved in the study of educational objectives.
2. To suggest some of the psychological, sociological, and philosophical factors of importance in arriving at definitions of educational purposes.
3. To consider various ways of stating and organizing educational purposes.
4. To present a sample statement of school functions and to examine its relationship to the factors considered in paragraph 2 above.

GROUP PROCESS IN CURRICULUM STUDY

Curriculum workers are placing great stress on the process of group interaction. In this process members of groups stimulate one another's creative possibilities: they criticize and evaluate rather than merely accept ideas, they offer their own ideas rather than merely absorb the ideas of others, and they regard one another as partners in a joint enterprise rather than as competitors for artificial status rewards. It is felt, therefore, that this type of process is fruitful in bringing about changed or matured attitudes and in stimulating purposeful action in concrete situations.

This point of view is upheld by practical experience. During World War II much time and effort were spent in "orientation"—

that is, programs designed to help men in the armed forces understand the purposes of the war. It was often found that discussion groups did the job more effectively than was possible in the lecture-hall situation.

Our tragic failure in this war—one which may well cause us to lose the eventual peace—was our failure in what the army called orientation. The army meaning of this unfortunate term is instruction to our soldiers in what the war was about. . . .

The British, like ourselves, wanted to make better soldiers of their men, but at the same time they tried to foster their political development. They wanted them to discuss their problems and their relations to the world. Consequently, they did not disseminate war news as news of the day—merely a number of unrelated factual items—but as a “background against which events can be assessed and understood.” The very essence of British orientation was discussion, free discussion among thirty or forty men in a group led by a competent officer chairman. It was based upon an assigned weekly topic and a background pamphlet written, not by the army, but by a famous English scholar, which was sent to group leaders to serve as a guide. The chairman could not take more than twenty minutes for his talk. The remainder of the period was devoted to discussion between the men and the chairman, the men being free to debate with him without regard to the officer-enlisted man relationship, so that the discussion itself became a democratic experiment while also serving the purpose for which it was intended.¹

This does not mean, of course, that some activity does not take place in the listener to the lectures, nor does it mean that the lecture technique should never be used. The point is that much more direct activity is possible in the small-group discussion and that the individual, finding it possible to take part in the process, identifies himself much more completely with the purposes for which the process is being conducted.

It is, of course, easy to become impatient with just talk. After several rounds of discussion, many teachers and administrators want to “produce” something. To get things down on paper at that stage may be exactly what is needed and may do the job of expediting further discussion and interaction. Also, at some stages of discussion it may be desirable to introduce a lecture on some background

¹ David L. Cohn, “Should Fighting Men Think?,” *Saturday Review of Literature*, XXX, No. 3: 7-8 (Jan. 18, 1947).

material needed for clarification of issues for further discussion. Somewhere along the line, too, an extensive summary or formal statement may be made, subject, of course, to continued analysis and revision if needed. These points are stated here to emphasize the fact that "getting things down on paper" is by no means foreign to the democratic discussion and interaction process. But it is important to remember that these paper statements are not ends in themselves. The ends are the changed or matured attitudes and the purposeful action of the people who have participated in the process. The paper statements, as well as the discussion techniques employed, are means to these ends. Of course, the term "ends" must be interpreted here with utmost flexibility to leave open the way for further modification, analysis, and reinterpretation of attitudes and behavior. So let us, by all means, be patient with the slow and sometimes irritating process of group interaction and not try to hurry it along merely to "get things done."

To have a good discussion and interaction process takes good leadership, careful preplanning, and alert guidance throughout. Very few discussions have succeeded on the "off-the-cuff" basis, and it is a rare discussion situation which can survive either weak and ineffectual leadership or dominating and inflexible leadership.

A SCHOOL FACULTY STUDIES EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

There are several ways to begin the process of all-faculty study and discussion of educational purposes.

One way is to begin with discussion or presentation of the basic sociological and psychological realities of our present-day living. This has the advantage of beginning with fundamentals. Conclusions arrived at can be, in a logical process, applied to the solution of problems faced in the school situation. After all, there are no more basic things in the educational process than the nature of our society and the nature of our human behavior. The weakness of this as a kick-off procedure is that few participants will be interested in these materials in and of themselves. Many teachers have heard lectures and have taken courses on these topics and will say, "We've heard that before." While these materials must get into the picture somewhere along the line, it is doubtful strategy to introduce them at the outset.

A second way is simply to ask the question "What should be our objectives in Blank High School?" and to set a group to work preparing a statement. Or you might ask each teacher on the faculty to prepare a statement and then put a committee to work summarizing the ones turned in. This procedure is probably the one most frequently used. It has proved to be for the most part a rather unrewarding procedure. The main difficulty is that participants approach it as an academic exercise and do not relate it to the realities of school and community living. Almost every school has somewhere in its files a listing of objectives arrived at through this process. For the most part these statements remain forgotten and are not put to use.

A third way is to accept a brief list of rather broad purposes of the school and to analyze intensively one or two in relation to actual school problems. One might start, for example, with some readily accessible listing, such as the Seven Cardinal Principles or the four groupings of aims in *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*.² Then take some broad purpose such as "health." Examine a wide range of school practices in the light of mental and physical health as an objective. Among the school practices which might be looked at are those involved in grading, promotion, failure, discipline, pupil-teacher relationships, make-up work for time lost in absence, transportation, tardiness control, and interscholastic athletics. As the faculty discusses some of these practices, it will find it necessary to go back to a more careful and precise definition of "health" as a school purpose. This will lead to a defining of the understandings and behaviors in the area of health which the school program should strive to develop. Of course, it will be discovered that we cannot consider health in isolation from other major purposes. This will bring in a consideration of recreation, citizenship, family living, and other important areas. If this process gets rolling, it should lead to a study of many important areas of objectives. This approach is sounder than the previous one in two respects: it makes it possible to assume certain key purposes to start out with rather than going through the artificial process of trying to "discover" them; it provides for going rather directly to

² Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (National Education Association, Washington, 1938).

some of the actual problems and operations in the life and work of the school.

A fourth approach, probably the soundest of all, is to begin with a live-wire problem in school or community, recognized as such by the teachers and lay people who are going to take part in the study. There is no problem of any kind in school life, large or small, general or specific, which does not depend for its final solution upon some conception of the purpose of education. Any serious discussion of a school problem must inevitably lead to the question of what the school is for, what the school is trying to accomplish. Furthermore, any other basis for deciding important issues in education or school practice is bound to run in the direction of expediency and in the long run will be revealed as short-sighted and impractical.

What are some of the problems which come up naturally in the on-going life of a school society? Here is a suggested inventory of problems which seem to lie close to teachers' hearts:

1. How can we best organize and use our school library?
2. Should we try to stimulate the development of student government in our school?
3. Shall we give graduation credit for school-related work experience in high school?
4. Is it good to have a student court through which students inflict penalties and punishments on other students?
5. What regulations should we have for assembly behavior? What part should the students have in making these regulations?
6. Should we move toward a teacher-parent conference technique in reporting or continue to use our report cards?
7. Who should graduate from high school? What standards should be maintained for high-school graduation?
8. Should our school join the National Honors Society?
9. What policies on promotion and failure should we adopt?
10. Who should be eligible for interscholastic athletics?
11. Do textbooks have a place in good teaching? If so, what? How should they be used?
12. Do workbooks have a place in good teaching? If so, what? How should they be used?
13. Should we encourage pupil-teacher planning in classroom work? If so, what phases can pupils plan with the teachers?

14. Should we or should we not attempt to group pupils in classes by ability levels?

15. Should we try out a double-period history and English setup?

16. Should our elementary school put in a hot-lunch program?

These are only a few of the many questions and problems which come up in everyday, normal school life. How can we arrive at fundamental and valid answers to these questions? They are not to be pulled out of a hat. They are not to be based on snap judgments or prejudice. And, in anticipation of one criticism of this process, they cannot be reached solely on the basis of exchanging miscellaneous opinions through conversation or discussion.

The answers to these questions depend upon philosophy, objectives, purposes, values, fundamental directions. It will at once be pointed out that these cannot be arrived at without a consideration of the nature of our society and the nature of our human personality, leading to some conception of children and youth needs in our culture, within the framework of certain philosophical values. These basic data should then be studied intensively. At this point such study will have value because the participants will see the need for it.

The following table is presented to indicate the relationship between school problems on the one hand and various broad areas of educational goals on the other. If you use the third approach (through broad objectives), you can start anywhere on the right-hand side and proceed to examine practices in the various school problems on the left. The question becomes "What does the broad purpose of democratic citizenship imply for our practices in school library, student government, etc.?" On the other hand, if you use the fourth approach, you start with a problem on the left side and go down the line on the right. In this case the question becomes "What light is thrown on the question of school library organization by our objectives in health, recreation, democratic citizenship, etc.?"

Areas of School
Practices or Problems
Library organization
School government
Work experience credit

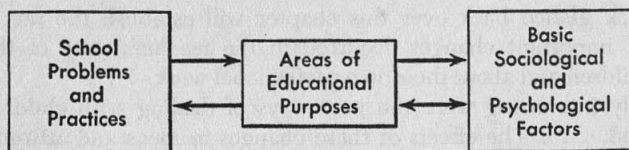
Areas of
Educational Objectives
Health, mental and physical
Use of leisure time
Democratic citizenship

Areas of School
Practices or Problems
(*continued*)
Student courts
Assembly conduct
Grading and reporting
Graduation standards
Honor rolls, honor societies
Promotion and failure
Eligibility for athletics
Use of textbooks
Use of workbooks
Pupil-teacher planning

Areas of
Educational Objectives
(*continued*)
Reflective thinking
Family living
Occupational competence
World understanding

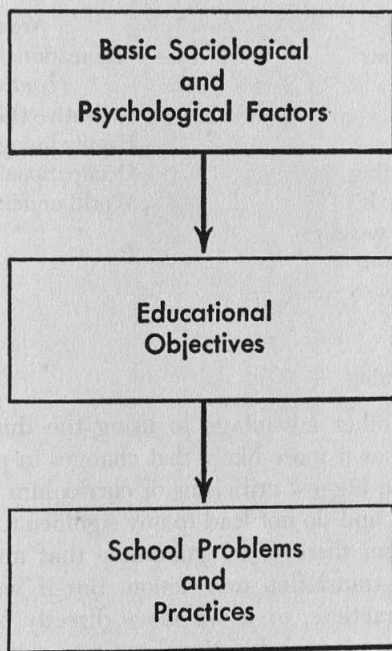
There is one other advantage to using the third or the fourth approach. It makes it more likely that changes in practice will take place. One of the biggest criticisms of curriculum programs is that they are just talk and do not lead to any significant changes in what we do. Of course, there is no guarantee that any approach will bring about the translation into action. But if we start with real problems and practices, or if we move directly to practices from agreement on some large educational purpose, we are going to face some issues close to the "doing" phase of it early in the game. Whereas if we start with a long, detailed examination of educational objectives and plan to apply them when agreement is reached, the doing stage gets pushed farther and farther off into the land of tomorrow or next year!

The first of the accompanying diagrams is designed to illustrate the relationship among various phases of curriculum study if you



use the third or the fourth approach. The second diagram represents a more strictly logical approach, but one which is less likely to motivate teacher interest or to provide for a close relationship at all times with school problems and practices.

A fifth approach, a variant of the approach through school prob-



lems, is made through coöperative case studies of children and youth. What this amounts to is using the problems and needs of one child as an approach to the study of general school problems and the consideration of all-school objectives. This approach is strongly recommended and carefully described in a report to the American Council on Education:

A quick glance back over this chapter will establish the fact that a series of important changes occurred in the teachers' way of thinking about children and about their own professional work. . . .

Equally interesting were the new ways of dealing with children that developed. . . . The effects of these changes in ideas and attitudes and of these new ways of dealing with children were described in terms of improved emotional climate in classrooms, of reduced strain and tension among teachers, and in terms of increased *friendliness* between teachers and children and between teachers and parents. Both the school staff and the pupils were reported as being happier and as finding more satisfaction and significance in their work together. The schools ran more

smoothly and were marked by greater freedom and spontaneity as well as by more effective cooperative planning and wider participation in carrying out plans.³

The objective, of course, is not to solve the problems or settle the case of the one child selected, but rather to increase the understanding of children's or youth's problems on the part of the teachers involved. It is desirable to involve the services of a consultant who can raise questions which might otherwise get passed by and who can help guide the interpretations and meanings developed.

These groups should be voluntary. It is possible to have one or two small groups engaged in child study discussions while the rest of the faculty may be carrying on another type of curriculum study activity. The experience of the Commission on Teacher Education indicates that teachers for the most part respond with enthusiasm to the opportunity to carry on small-group case studies of children and youth—provided that participation is voluntary and informal.

BASIC FACTORS INVOLVED

Somewhere along the line in any curriculum study, regardless of the approach used, the group must take hold of the basic psychological, sociological, and philosophical factors involved. The following presentation is designed to illustrate one possible organization for these materials.

What People Need for Happiness and Adjustment

Any discussion or analysis of curriculum depends on our view of human nature, its present status and its possibilities of future development. We are concerned with human beings, their hopes and fears, their aspirations, their quest for security, certainty, and happiness. We have learned from psychology, supplemented by everyday experience, that people have certain fundamental needs. There are many ways⁴ of classifying, defining, and organizing these needs;

³ Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (American Council on Education, Washington, 1945), p. 400.

⁴ See, for example, Daniel Alfred Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process* (American Council on Education, Washington, 1938), Ch. VI: "Basic Personality Needs and Conditions Which Frustrate Them"; James M. Plant, *Personality and the Cultural Pattern* (Commonwealth Fund, New York, 1937), Ch. VI: "Results of the Conflict Between Personality Needs and Environmental

the following classification might serve as a convenient one in a curriculum study.

Belongingness. Although this is a rather unaesthetic word, there is probably no good substitute for it in our language. Every human being wants to belong, to be accepted as part of a group of human beings. It is probable that hermits take up the life they lead because of some frustration rather than by choice. Most human beings admit readily that they have this craving. Americans, particularly, are known as "joiners." The presence of several hundred groups or clubs even in our small communities testifies further to the existence of this need. This is probably one of the bases of loyalty to our families and friends and of our allegiance to church denominations, to political parties, and to our country. Rebecca West has stated this well in her article on the meaning of treason:

Yet to be a traitor is most miserable. All the men I saw in the prisoner's dock were sad as they stood their trials, not only because they were going to be punished. They would have been sad even if they had never been brought to justice. They had forsaken the familiar medium; they had trusted themselves to the mercies of those who had no reason to care for them; knowing their custodians' indifference they had lived for long in fear; and they were aware that they had thrown away their claim on those who might naturally have felt affection for them. Strangers, as King Solomon put it, were filled with their wealth, and their labors were in the house of a stranger, and they mourned at the last when their flesh and body were consumed. As a divorce sharply recalls what a happy marriage should be, so the treachery of these men recalled what a nation should be; a shelter where all talents are generously recognized, all forgivable oddities forgiven, all viciousness quietly frustrated, and those who lack talent honored for equivalent contributions of graciousness. Each of these men was as dependent on the good opinion of others as one is oneself; they needed a nation which was also a hearth, and their capacity for suffering made it tragic that they had gone out from their own hearth to suffer among strangers, because the intellectual leaders of

Pressures." Prescott classifies personality needs as physiological, social, and ego and integrative needs. Under social needs he lists affection, belonging, likeness to others. Under ego and integrative needs he lists contact with reality, harmony with reality, progressive symbolization, increasing self-direction, fair balance between success and failure, attaining selfhood or individuality. While Plant does not list needs as such, he emphasizes the importance of belongingness, status, and security in personality development.

their time had professed a philosophy which was scarcely more than a lapse of memory, and had forgotten that a hearth gives out warmth.⁵

Perhaps people become traitors in the first place because they do not feel their own group has accepted them. They hope, through their treason, to find such acceptance in another group. We do consider "falling out of belongingness" as one of the worst things which can happen to a human being. In our national literature there are few characters so pitied, or regarded as so tragic, as Philip Nolan in "The Man Without a Country."

Participation. Yet we want something more. We want to contribute to our groups, to take active part in their concerns, to be regarded as someone who can play on the team. Religious denominations and fraternal groups try to meet this need by providing ritualistic exercises and observances in which members can take part. During wartime the mental health of some people may be actually improved because under stress of national danger efforts are made to get everybody working on the common task. Serving as block wardens, fire watchers, airplane spotters, and so on, even in our own country, probably did much to build up many individuals who otherwise rarely get to feel that they are in there pitching with their fellow countrymen.

We know that even the horrors of living in a target area for aircraft bombardment don't seem to affect mental health. In one study of the British civilian population during World War II we have this statement: "It can be said at once that one of the most striking things about the effects of the war on the civilian population has been the relative rarity of pathological mental disturbance among the civilians exposed to air raids."⁶ This suggests the possibility that the physical terrors of air raids may have been balanced off by the psychological comforts gained by increased belongingness in the we-group.

It is necessary here to distinguish between participation and mere activity. The human craving is not for merely doing something, but for doing it as part of an important task recognized by the group.

⁵ Rebecca West, "The Meaning of Treason," *Harper's Magazine*, CXCIV, No. 1169: 289-293 (October, 1947).

⁶ R. P. Gillespie, *Psychological Effects of War on Citizen and Soldier* (W. W. Norton & Co., New York, 1942), p. 106.

It is doing it together that builds the we-feeling in families, schools, lodges, and nations, and which helps the individual member of these groups gain happiness and satisfaction.

Status, or Recognition. People like also to be recognized for their contributions, particularly to attain some shorthand label or designation which clearly defines status. The satisfaction gained by participation as an air-raid defense worker is sharpened by being called a "warden" and being given a badge or a uniform. This desire probably accounts as much as the economic motive for the efforts of many teachers to become principals, supervisors, and superintendents and for the striving after promotions which characterizes a college or university faculty.

It is on this point that modern military organizations present difficulties to the majority of their members. The differentiation between officers and men is a severe blow to the status aspirations of men coming in from civilian life. Military leaders claim that this differentiation cannot be avoided. On the other hand, we might speculate on the possibility of an army's increasing its efficiency simply by finding some way to meet the status needs of the majority of soldiers.

This need for status may be a clue not only to some of the problems of military life, but also to the problems of school and community life. What might be done to help every person not only to be a participant, but to feel that others regard him as an important participant?

Security. If a person does gain something in the way of belongingness, participation, and status, he also wants to feel that he has a good chance of keeping them. At least he wants to be able to calculate the risk involved and to understand the rules of the game enough to know how to do what is expected. To be in the dark concerning his security can demoralize the individual quickly and effectively. This is a point which all teachers recognize. In a teaching situation which places stress on grade competition there is nothing which so readily demoralizes a class as uncertainty and confusion in the criteria to be applied in arriving at the grades.

The attainment of these desires provides the psychological basis for a happy life. Failure to attain them leads to frustration and bitterness. Such frustration leads to some form of compensatory be-

havior, often in the form of aggression, and becomes an important factor in wars, crime, marital difficulties, intergroup antagonisms, and the like.

Developmental Tasks of Children and Youth at Various Maturity Levels

Another way of looking at the needs of individuals is through the medium of developmental tasks. The problems of children and youth are different from those of adults; and the problems of children on one maturity level are to some extent different from those of children on other levels. The extent to which human beings at any level of development can attain belongingness, participation, status, and security depends upon their ability to solve certain problems, or carry out certain tasks. A developmental task, therefore, is any job which human beings at a certain level of maturity must carry out successfully if they are to meet their psychological needs and attain happiness. Such a task is a result of individual or psychological needs combined with the characteristics and demands of the social group. An analysis of the basic psychological factors involved in curriculum development must therefore give considerable emphasis to these tasks and the role of the school in helping children fulfill them.

There are many ways of defining these developmental tasks. Here is one way. It was made by a group of teachers and psychologists at the University of Chicago. This statement should be regarded as exploratory and tentative and should be used by other groups as a basis for further study and definition.

Developmental tasks of early childhood

- Learning to take solid foods.
- Learning to walk.
- Learning to talk.
- Learning to control elimination of body wastes.
- Learning sexual modesty.
- Forming simple concepts of the physical world.
- Learning to distinguish right from wrong.
- Learning appropriate social behavior with siblings and parents.

Developmental tasks of middle childhood

- Learning to care for one's person—to dress one's self, keep clean, etc.
- Developing physical skills as used in games.

Learning a sex role.

Learning to get along with age-mates.

Learning the fundamental intellectual skills necessary for everyday life
—the three R's.

Developing concepts necessary for everyday life.

Developing conscience and a scale of values.

Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions—race, religion, school, government, nation, etc.

Learning to control emotions.

Learning wholesome attitudes toward one's self as a physical organism.

Developmental tasks of adolescence

Accepting one's physique, and accepting a masculine or feminine role.

Achieving new relations with age-mates of both sexes.

Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults.

Achieving assurance of economic independence.

Selecting and preparing for an occupation.

Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence.

Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior.

Preparing for marriage and family life.

Building conscious values (esthetic, religious, ethical) in harmony with an adequate scientific world-picture.

Developmental tasks of early adulthood

Establishing one's self in an occupation.

Courtship and marriage.

Establishing a home and family.

Developing knowledge and critical abilities necessary for civic competence.

Assuming social responsibility as an adult in religious, political, civic, and recreational affairs.⁷

Many of these tasks have direct implications for the school curriculum. One of the developmental tasks of adolescence, for example, as stated here, is that of "achieving new relations with age-

⁷ The 1943-44 Teachers College Collaborators in Child Growth and Development at the Collaboration Center on Human Development and Education, University of Chicago, *Child Growth and Development Emphasis in Teacher Education* (American Association of State Teachers Colleges, Oneonta, N.Y., 1944), pp. 82-83. For an excellent analysis of the developmental task concept on the secondary level see the John Dewey Society Eighth Yearbook: Hollis L. Caswell (editor), *The American High School* (Harper & Brothers, New York, 1946), Ch. V (by Stephen Corey).

mates of both sexes." At this stage in development, there is probably nothing more important to the boy or girl than to gain acceptance, or "belongingness," in the social groups of his or her age-mates. To do this successfully requires some skills, particularly in dancing and in the application of certain rules of social behavior and dress. Do our high schools now provide for this in the curriculum? If not, should they do so, and how should they do so?

Successful fulfillment of the tasks at each level helps the individual to gain needed belongingness, participation, status, and security. The successful adjustments at each level provide the basis for success at later levels. The effect is cumulative. Every adult personality is largely a result of the extent to which developmental tasks at childhood and youth levels have been successfully performed. Schools dare not neglect the implications of these tasks, not only for the formal instruction part of the curriculum, but for guidance, student activities, work experience, community participation, and every phase of the life of the school.

The Environment in Which People Strive for Happiness and Adjustment

Sociological factors are important too. The individual strives to meet his psychological needs within the setting of a social pattern. This social pattern provides the framework in terms of which children and youth try to carry out their developmental tasks. Any study of the school curriculum must therefore include a consideration of the nature of present-day society. This problem is examined here from several points of view: that of some of the generalized features or characteristics of contemporary social life; that of the more specific and personalized social hazards encountered by individuals; and that of the general contradictions in our culture which become the bases for some conflicts and contradictions within individuals.

General Features of Contemporary Social Life. There are many terms and frameworks which might be used to characterize modern society. For an excellent description of the many processes and features of contemporary social life a school faculty might use, for example, such a text as Ogburn and Nimkoff's *Sociology*.⁸

⁸ William F. Ogburn and Meyer F. Nimkoff, *Sociology* (Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1940). The framework (mechanization, urbanization, complexity,

Among the important features of modern life is mechanization. The industrial revolution has bequeathed to our age a society based on the machine. Nor do we yet see any slackening off in the rapid pace of new inventions and new mechanical techniques. Almost every mechanical invention produces a number of social effects and problems,⁹ and since we are notoriously slow in solving social problems, the result is a tremendous pile-up of these unsolved problems in all aspects of human living today. To this difference in the rates of our mechanical development and our social development sociologists have applied the term "social lag" or "cultural lag." This lag is probably the key to war, revolution, and social unrest in our society. For example, the phenomenon we call "technological unemployment" is merely a special case of the general lag.¹⁰

Extreme mechanization operates with severity on individuals in many lines of work. The assembly line pattern in industry makes it difficult for many workers to achieve status and reduces greatly the opportunity for feeling any belongingness in the industrial operation as a whole. On the other hand, it may build up for certain individuals the security which comes from having mastered a routine task which can be performed over and over again without further strain or tension.

Another feature of modern social life is urbanization,¹¹ which refers not only to the fact of living in cities, but to the spread of urban characteristics to the rural environment as well. Even in many rural communities today we find increasing specialization of function, impersonal detachment from the processes of group living, and dependence upon commercialized and mechanized recreation. The once-familiar pattern of the self-sufficient farm family carrying on its own economic processes, participating directly with other rural families in politics and government, and providing from its

specialization, interdependence) used in this presentation follows that of I. James Quillen, "A Suggested Curriculum for the Social Studies," *The Future of the Social Studies*, James Michener, editor (National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, 1939), p. 118.

⁹ On the social effect of inventions see Ogburn and Nimkoff, *op. cit.*, pp. 846-858.

¹⁰ For an analysis of social change and social lag see William F. Ogburn, *Social Change* (Viking Press, New York, 1938).

¹¹ See, for example, National Resources Committee, *Our Cities* (Government Printing Office, Washington, 1937).

own resources the activities for happy and satisfying recreation is being modified.

Some groups, recognizing this difficulty, insist that the answer is to withdraw from the city and to build up a new kind of small rural community. It is fair to raise the question whether it might not be better to accept the realities as they are and to help individuals satisfy their needs within the framework we have developed. Perhaps even the large metropolitan community, without disintegrating physically, can break up into neighborhood, face-to-face groups in which individuals can regain their sense of participation and status. This need puts a great challenge to the school curriculum, and one of the most encouraging instances of response to that challenge has come in the neighborhood planning activities in the building of a new Philadelphia.¹²

Mechanization and urbanization both contribute to the increasing complexity of modern living.¹³ Several examples sharply underline this feature. A committee of the 76th Congress, the Temporary National Economic Committee, set out to make a study of monopoly and concentration in American business. This is a topic with which we are all concerned and on which most Americans have at some time or other ventured strong opinions. Yet this committee, with all its resources and authority, found itself entwined in the many complexities of this problem. It called hundreds of witnesses, collected thousands of pages of expert testimony, and at the end did a masterly job of summarizing the main features of its conclusions—but required over twenty volumes to do the job! Consider now the plight of the citizen who goes to these volumes to clarify his own thinking on this important matter. Just this one phase of our economic life has developed such complexity as to get beyond the understanding of most citizens and beyond the control even of the United States government.

Consider also the development of special terminology and complex principles in the area of monetary policy. Here again our economic welfare depends to some extent on the types of policies

¹² See Philadelphia Public Schools, *Youth Shares in Planning a Better Philadelphia* (Citizens' Council on City Planning, 1717 Sansom Street, Philadelphia, 1947).

¹³ This has received considerable emphasis, dating back to Herbert Spencer's treatment of it in *Progress: Its Law and Cause*.

worked out. The citizen finds it almost impossible to follow the twists and turns in a field where even the experts or the specialists find themselves confused and in controversy with each other. How many citizens, for example, can take the time to become fully aware of the significance of the Bretton Woods international monetary agreement reached toward the end of World War II?

These examples can be multiplied in all areas of our social, political, and economic life today. Consider, then, the plight of the individual seeking belongingness, participation, status, and security in this culture. It becomes more important than ever before that the face-to-face groups—school, home, neighborhood, and church—provide more opportunities for meeting these needs, in order to compensate for the immense difficulties of trying to meet them in the larger social patterns.

A school faculty working on curriculum study might find it interesting to preview such motion pictures as *The City*, which depict in dramatic form the plight of the individual in a complex society and some of the approaches to solving his problem.

Closely related to the complexity of our modern social life is the specialization of function.¹⁴ Our world of work has become so differentiated that most people can in a lifetime master only a very narrow set of occupational skills. The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* of the U.S. Employment Service, for example, lists over 20,000 separate jobs. Even with the grouping of these into occupational families, this state of affairs creates an extremely difficult task for vocational counselors who strive to induct youth into this bewildering maze of specialties.

A by-product of this extreme specialization is intergroup jealousy, suspicion, and tension. Each group of workers strives to build up the importance of its own work and in doing so takes the line of running down other people's. This can be seen even in a high-school faculty, where the English teachers frequently convince themselves that they have *the* important contribution to make, where the industrial arts teachers often defend their field by attacking the work in "academic subjects," and so on. The individuals in each field try to protect their belongingness and status by building up the prestige of that field rather than by trying to find these satisfactions in the

¹⁴ On specialization see Ogburn and Nimkoff, *op. cit.*, pp. 561-562.

total job to be accomplished. In the long run, our extreme specialization, although it contributes to increased production of goods, makes it more difficult for human beings to meet their psychological and emotional needs. We cannot undo our specialization and would not if we could; but in all aspects of our life, including the school, we must take into account the fact that it exists and the need for finding other avenues of human satisfaction in the school or community.

But specialization is accompanied by the somewhat contradictory feature of interdependence. It is a truism that modern transportation and communication have drawn all nations closer together into one world. This truism came home to us with particular force after Pearl Harbor, when the loss of the Dutch and British East Indies threatened to cripple transportation in our American communities. It underlines for us the fact that, for purely selfish reasons alone, we must become concerned with human liberties and justice in every corner of the globe. It raises the question of how much belongingness, participation, and status the individual can achieve as a member of a world, as well as of a national or local society. We have had world-wide problems thrust on us without much opportunity to develop world allegiance through the satisfying of our individual needs.

But we are interdependent in our own local communities as well. Specialized workers depend heavily on one another's services. They are helpless in areas other than their own. This loss of self-reliance makes it all the more necessary for the individual to feel that he belongs and to build up in his own mind the importance of his specialty as a means of achieving status and recognition.

Special Hazards Encountered by the Individual in Our Modern Society. Our individual, seeking belongingness, participation, status, and security, must do so within the framework of mechanized, urbanized, complex, specialized, and highly interdependent social environment. As he goes about the developmental tasks involved, he encounters certain hazards which, though common to some extent to most civilizations, are particularly sharp in our Western culture of the present.¹⁵

¹⁵ These correspond in part to a list presented by Daniel Prescott, "Affective Factors in Education," *Occupations*, XIV:723-732 (May, 1936), p. 731.

One of these is economic insecurity through unemployment. Unemployment holds greater terrors for the individual than the threat of deprivation of food, clothing, shelter, and other physical necessities. Most modern societies today do provide for minimum physical care for individuals completely without resources. But the sharpest penalty of unemployment is the deprivation of status in the social group. Having a job is the ticket of admission to adult society for all males; employment either on a paid basis in business or industry or on an unpaid basis as a housewife is similarly a prerequisite for status to most women. Throughout the years of depression, the jobholding members of society systematically punished the unemployed by ridiculing them with jokes, songs, cartoons, and the like. The W.P.A. joke symbolized the plight of the unemployed caused by loss of status. This loss of status threatened often to become loss of belongingness and participation too. Some American citizens advocated depriving the unemployed of the right to vote.

Few people have real job security. Therefore, the little belongingness, participation, and status which people get from their jobs cannot be counted on. There is always the fear of losing the job and being pushed into the outcast group. This helps introduce anxieties and tensions into the work relationship. It promotes an extreme degree of dependence on the part of each worker toward his immediate superior.

One task of public education might well become that of developing new bases for status and recognition in the community. Why should not a male citizen be thought of highly because of his being a good husband and father, or a good citizen of his neighborhood or community, even though for some reason he does not work at some paid occupation? How can our schools develop attitudes of respect and admiration for qualities other than those which bring the rewards in occupational life? At the same time education should develop in all of us as much competence as possible, so as to reduce the possibility of unemployment, and also should promote the understandings and skills needed to build more stability in our economic life, to reduce the unemployment arising from business cycle or depression.

Another hazard is that of group divisions within the community. Consider how much easier it is for the individual to achieve at least

belongingness and participation in a homogeneous society to which his birth gives him automatic entry. Mandel Sherman's study of the "hollow folk" gives us a description of an isolated group living in Colvin Hollow. All members of this group were interrelated and went by the name of Colvin; individuals belonged because of birth, and all healthy members of the group participated in the raising of food on the subsistence basis. Probably no member of the group had much status, but even the least competent and popular member had full measure of belongingness, participation, and security.

Worry, sometimes described as the crowning curse of an increasingly complicated civilization, is reduced to a minimum in Colvin Hollow.

No man worries about losing his job. He has none to lose. Nobody worries about paying bills. There are none to pay. Nobody is tortured with a gnawing conscience. Even worries over sickness and death can hardly be discerned, due to the curious fatalism of the people and their passive acceptance of nature. There are no worries over social inequalities, for none exist. There are no worries over frustrated ambitions, for there are few ambitions to be frustrated. Very little of the psychic energy of these people is consumed in making adjustments to tomorrow or correcting errors of yesterday. But in the other hollows, as the economic and social structure becomes increasingly complex many of these worries appear.¹⁶

There are few neurotic people in Colvin and Needles Hollow.¹⁷

Many will protest that we do not want to reduce our modern civilization to this level. But can we find compensations for the individual who finds himself an outsider in the larger culture?

The individual should get much of his belongingness by being rooted in the life of his community. This possibility is threatened by our excessive geographical mobility. Wartime conditions accentuated but did not create our tendency to be on the move. Many school children today have moved from one community to another, pulling up their little stakes, saying good-by to friends, and making another adjustment all over again. Thousands of adults are strangers in the communities where they make their dwelling places. How can the school induct into their new environments the transfer children from other places and help them feel at home in the new

¹⁶ Mandel Sherman and Henry R. Thomas, *Hollow Folk* (Thomas Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1933), p. 106.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 204.

setting? How can our community living as a whole provide opportunities for the newcomer to become an active participant in community activities? These are important curriculum questions which every school faculty must face.

Practically all individuals, moreover, face a constant competitive struggle for status. Popular magazine fiction, advertising, and even the comic strips play up the competitive feature of our life and build their appeals on our desire to get ahead in the world. The school, in its desire to prepare children for the stresses and strains of our competitive culture, early introduces its grading system, its failures and promotions, its honor rolls and honor awards. Children compete not only for these recognitions, but also for the spotlight in student activities, in interscholastic athletics, and in their boy-girl relationships and social life. On the adult level, our competitive struggles cause terrific tension in professional and business life and at times bring about unfortunate physical as well as mental effects.

Perhaps some of this type of competition produces better work. But the question of how much competition in school and society is desirable has not yet been settled. Also, we do not have the answer to the question of how best to prepare children for the competitive strains of the adult world. One group believes that the way to do it is to introduce children early to competitive activities. Another group holds that a decrease in emphasis on competition in childhood builds better emotional and mental health, which enables a child better to meet adult problems, including the problem of competition.

At any rate, along with whatever positive contributions competition may make, it also has the effect of decreasing security and for the vast majority of citizens of decreasing status. The individual trying to meet these needs in our society certainly finds in our competitive culture an additional hazard. For this reason the study of competition becomes one of the major aspects of any curriculum study program. Perhaps the answer lies in developing enough different kinds of status in a school so that every child can succeed at something. But it is a problem which a curriculum development group cannot avoid.

General Cultural Contradictions and Their Effects on Individuals. Faced by the hazards of trying to meet his psychological

needs within the framework of our complex society, the individual may develop conflicts in the way he feels or thinks about things, or in the behavior with which he tries to meet his daily problems. Some of these individual conflicts are instances of general contradictions occurring in our society. Karen Horney has suggested three of these:

The first contradiction to be mentioned is that between competition and success on the one hand, and brotherly love and humility on the other. . . .

The second contradiction is that between the stimulation of our needs and our factual frustrations in satisfying them. . . .

Another contradiction exists between the alleged freedom of the individual and all his factual limitations.¹⁸

The individual who strives to attain belongingness, participation, status, and security in a culture which presents these and other hazards and contradictions finds himself bewildered and confused.

The confusion in individuals brought about by these and other conflicts and contradictions in social life may lead to frustration and to extreme anxiety. In some cases frustration may lead to aggressive behavior or violence.¹⁹ Much of our intergroup hatred, for example, can probably be traced back to the frustrations and anxieties of the individuals comprising the groups. Others may react to frustration by extreme withdrawal. Many people keep going along trying to make the best adjustment possible, getting as much satisfaction as possible out of the amount of status they can develop, and keeping their anxieties and fears to themselves. Very likely one important factor in the success of the individual in meeting these conditions is the kind of emotional development which he made in connection with his education.

Individual frustrations, aggressions, and withdrawals add up to wide-scale social problems. They reflect themselves in family and friendship patterns, in school and community life, in professional and business life. These conditions characterize the psychological environment in which our children grow up to adulthood.

¹⁸ Karen Horney, *The Neurotic Personality of Our Time* (W. W. Norton & Co., New York, 1937), pp. 288, 289.

¹⁹ See John Dollard and others, *Frustration and Aggression* (Yale University Press, New Haven, 1939).

The social importance of individual adjustment is shown dramatically in a study reported by Abel. Through the medium of a prize contest conducted before World War II in Nazi Germany, Abel collected the letters of small-scale Nazis explaining why they joined the movement. Running through these letters is a pattern of individual discontents in the society that followed World War I. The Nazi movement skillfully appealed to these discontented people and provided many with what appeared to be the means of attaining their desires.²⁰ It seems clear that any movement similar to Nazism, which builds a program on hatred and violence, will make its greatest appeal to frustrated individuals, anxious about their own importance. Whether in the future similar movements grow strong in Western civilization will depend upon the success with which individuals meet their legitimate psychological needs through peaceful and constructive behavior. We cannot expect large numbers of defeated, disappointed, frustrated, overanxious people to build a peaceful democratic society. What does and what should our school program have to do with this?

Interrelationship of Social and Individual Factors

The suggested analysis here presented places great stress upon the problems and desires of individual human beings. It is possible to raise the question whether this does not deēmphasize the importance of social relationships and social needs. Actually, society and individuals interact upon each other, and the social environment affects individual growth as much as individual desires and aspirations shape the pattern of social problems. But the school does its work primarily with and for individuals. Its objectives are usually stated in terms of individual behavior, and its techniques must take into account the way individuals learn. It should not be forgotten, however, that individuals must learn social responsibility.

The one danger in this emphasis on individual problems is that we will take the defeatist attitude that "you can't change human nature." If this position is taken, then we can use individual emo-

²⁰ Theodore Fred Abel, *Why Hitler Came into Power* (Prentice-Hall, New York, 1938). The author of this study specifically disclaims any kinship with the extreme "psychiatric" explanation of Nazism, particularly as advanced by Frederick L. Schuman, but he identifies widespread individual discontent as one major factor in the Nazi success.

tional problems and tensions as excuses and as means of escaping from our educational responsibilities. Teachers must bear in mind that individual problems and aspirations are culturally as well as biologically determined. Human nature can be developed to its fullest possibilities through adequate educational experiences, and the question whether or not it can be "changed" becomes irrelevant.

The foregoing analysis indicates the difficulties faced by people as they try to meet their emotional needs in our complex social setting. One might raise the question "So what?" Does this really make any difference? It is desirable, therefore, in any program of curriculum study, to arrive at some conception of overall values, in terms of which the problems and needs of individuals can be seen as important and also in terms of which approaches might be made to building a better world. We have in our society such a group of values, or ideals. They represent the best aspirations of our Hebraic-Christian traditions, and it is to these ideals that we apply the term "democracy."

It is possible to make many varying interpretations of what we call the democratic way of life. Some people, including some teachers, are inclined to restrict its meaning to those political techniques which have been used in Anglo-Saxon countries to bring about greater democracy. Others, particularly the opponents of democracy, think of it as a social order characterized by unrestrained individualism, where everybody does what he wants. One of the most fruitful conceptions for educational purposes has been that offered by John Dewey,²¹ which stresses the importance of the individual personality, the process of group responsibility and coöperation, and the contribution of reflective thinking or "scientific method."

We shall examine these particularly in Chapter IX, in reference to the curriculum process. At this point we are concerned largely with the first point, that of "respect for personality" or "human freedom." Respect for personality amounts to acting on the belief that every human being is entitled to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, regardless of his birth into a particular social class, racial group, etc., or other factors over which he has no control. Notice

²¹ John Dewey, "Education and Social Change," *The Social Frontier*, III: 238 (May, 1937); V. T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky, *Reorganizing Secondary Education* (D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1939), pp. 68-75.

that this is not an unqualified grant of these rights. Under this definition, life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness may for the good of the group be denied to criminals. This grant is not a license to unrestrained activities injurious to other individuals. Another way of stating this is that all people are important and entitled to a fair chance to attain the good life. It is in relation to this first basic point of democracy that we use such other formulations as, for example, Franklin D. Roosevelt's famous statement of the four freedoms.

This idea of respect for personality and human dignity has many important implications for the work of the school. It implies the emotional acceptance of all children by the teacher. It precludes the use of sarcasm, ridicule, and humiliating punishments. It puts the happiness of the child as one of the most important goals of education, not happiness in terms of giving the child everything he wants, but happiness in terms of helping each child meet his needs of belongingness, participation, status, and security. How can the school, realistically taking into account the hazards of our complex society, help children continuously to meet these needs as they grow to adulthood?

Philosophical Frameworks and Their Role in Curriculum Analysis

We have been examining possible approaches to the individual and social factors involved in the study of educational purposes. It is, of course, impossible to study these factors and to make decisions concerning them without consciously or unconsciously taking a philosophical position of some kind. The question arises, then, whether it is more practical to let the philosophical questions simply come up in the course of the study of problems, or whether it is desirable in the case of the individual and social factors to make the philosophical position conscious and explicit. The recommendation here is that although we start with school problems we should at some time consciously examine some of the philosophical issues and questions.

The major philosophical controversies in education today have had their origin, at least in part, in the determined efforts of experimentalists to secure consideration and discussion of their views. Out of this has emerged a tendency to think of three basic philosophical schools in relation to educational problems: idealism, realism, and

experimentalism. Attempts to define these terms are often misleading and confusing. The distinction between idealism and realism often escapes all but the most initiated, and when we get into the further differentiations involved in the many kinds of realists and idealists the need for the specialist becomes more and more apparent. Entire volumes and sets of volumes have been dedicated to these refinements, and it would probably be futile to attempt to deal with such materials in all but a very few public-school curriculum programs. But the basic points of issue between experimentalists, on the one hand, and practically all other schools of thought, on the other, are more direct and tangible. It is for this reason that we suggest here a brief framework in terms of which we might examine the significance of this controversy in the development of educational purposes.

The term "experimentalism" is closely related to and sometimes used interchangeably with "pragmatism" and "instrumentalism." Historically, it has developed as the philosophy of James and Dewey, with major educational applications being made by Kilpatrick. From it, in part at least, developed the movement known as "progressive education," and several generations of American school administrators who took their doctorates at Columbia University absorbed much of the vocabulary and point of view. In view of the widespread advocacy of these ideas, it is remarkable that there has been so little practice consistent with them; but it is probably accurate to state that no other philosophy has had such widespread verbal acceptance accompanied by a lack of application in the practical world of everyday school affairs.

Experimentalists usually start with the uniqueness and the unique importance of the individual human being. This merges closely with the Hebraic-Christian ideal of the individual and leads to the doctrine of "respect for personality" which we accept today as a major feature of the democratic way of life. But experimentalists are always quick to point out that the individual lives in a social environment and that his quest for happiness or security will be favored by the degree to which he assumes social responsibility and takes his responsible part in the concerns of the group. Experimentalism is, then, no unrestrained or "rugged" individualism; neither is it a philosophy in which the individual may be submerged or wiped out by

a state, a political ideology, or any kind of institutionalized belief or routine. In this sense, experimentalism is a philosophy of balance between the individual and the group, with full recognition of the interdependence between the two.

The uniqueness of the individual begins with his unique perceptions. Out of his unique perceptions the individual begins to shape his conceptions of the environment. This means that in the last analysis every interpretation or generalization made by the individual is unique to himself. In other words, nobody on the outside can give an individual information, concepts, attitudes, and the like. This is the position which has led experimentalists to deëmphasize the importance of absolutes and the use of absolutes in teaching. It is this deëmphasis—and, in some cases, the implicit denial of absolutes on the part of experimentalists—which led to the major philosophical reaction against their points of view.

As the individual meets his environment, he encounters frustrations and disturbances. These produce awareness of problems, and the individual then goes about a problem-solving process in an attempt to establish adjustment, or "equilibrium." It is to these problem-solving activities and the modifications of behavior involved in them that the experimentalists, particularly Kilpatrick, have given the name "learning." To the experimentalist, then, learning never consists of mere absorption; it consists of the experimental activities in which individuals and groups engage as they seek to solve their problems and establish a desired state of equilibrium. Of course, equilibrium is never achieved in a living, growing individual. The attainment of a state of near equilibrium in one area produces disturbances, conflicts, challenges in others, and so the process of learning—that is, the process of living—is continuous.

From the standpoint of an experimentalist, then, the objectives of schooling emphasize the qualities of self-reliance, the skills of individual and group problem-solving, the skills of group process. They come very close to the large area of objectives which the Educational Policies Commission calls "self-realization," but always in relation to group welfare and responsibility. The traditional outcomes or materials of education—information, knowledge, generalizations, understandings, attitudes—have value only as they are "instrumental" in the individual's problem-solving activities. They should not

appear as educational objectives in and of themselves. Therefore, while the experimentalist welcomes any and all materials which may be instrumental in learning, he rejects the idea that "knowing about" or "understanding about" and so on can serve as ends in themselves. This is another point on which experimentalism often creates strong controversy.

In terms of the everyday operating policies of the school, we face yet another issue in this area. Suppose we grant the importance of the individual and his unique perceptions and assume that learning, instead of being passive absorption, is an active, striving, dynamic process engaged in by human beings as they individually and collectively carry on experimental problem-solving activities. Does it follow then that all educational activity must be problem-solving, and if so in what sense of that term? Does it also follow that the individual should engage in problem-solving only on problems which he recognizes at the time? Does it also follow that major emphasis should be given to those problems which the individual not only recognizes but originates and suggests? To what extent, then, do teachers and curriculum workers possess the right or the responsibility of outlining in advance areas of problems for students to work on? What place do we have for a "scope and sequence" or a curriculum outline?

The answers to these questions probably vary from one experimentalist to another, and the actions of an experimentalist in practice may not always be consistent with the point of view he expresses in the abstract. Perhaps each group of parents, lay people, teachers, children, and youth in each community should work out these answers in relation to their own problems on the basis of honest and hard study of the local circumstances and needs. It is safe to say, perhaps, that all experimentalists place great emphasis on the final determination of the problem by the students, but do not preclude suggestions coming from the adult group. For example,

. . . so far as the student is concerned, the first part of the process is almost universally omitted. The sizing up of the situation, the decision as to whether the problem is worth attack, and which way to go about it—these are all done for the student in advance. Only the less educational part of the problem remains; the carrying out of the plan, which is bound

to work because the teacher has done it many times before, is of very little value.²²

The writer of the foregoing also recognizes teacher initiative and leadership as follows:

Thus the concrete actions indulged in would be in keeping with what the learner purposes. Since we know that the very selections from his surroundings which he is able to see depend upon his purpose, we cannot proceed otherwise whether we like it or not. This does not mean that the teacher has no right to try to develop interest. What the teacher has no right to do is to attempt to demand interest. She must be interested herself, and the child then lends interest because there is rapport. Children can be stimulated to wholesome and useful activity, but it has to become their activity.²³

It is probably not inconsistent with experimentalism, then, for curriculum workers to suggest possible areas of problems, but the temptation for the teacher and the administrator is to cross the fine line which separates "suggesting possible areas of problems" from the land where it is definitely planned in advance that Indians will be the first "unit" in the third-grade class this fall.

The following statement, perhaps one of the clearest on the implication of all this for everyday practice, is also taken from the author of the foregoing statements. It is an attempt to answer the questions which inevitably arise concerning the role of subject matter in an experimentalist philosophy of education.

Since we now know that the student learns in accordance with his own purposes and experiences which he cannot in fact truly perceive in any other way, we must necessarily look to a modification of the role and usefulness of the subject matter. We now know that the subject matter will be perceived as the student can perceive it, no matter what we do, and that no two students will perceive a given fact the same way.

This does not mean that subject matter will not be used, or that it becomes unimportant. We cannot teach without teaching something, our students learn without learning something. No piece of subject matter, no fact of human knowledge, is bad in itself. Neither is any fact good in itself. It is good or bad only in relation to the person learning it, and to

²² Earl C. Kelley, *Education for What Is Real* (Harper & Brothers, New York, 1947), p. 86.

²³ *Ibid.*, pp. 84-85.

the possibility of his learning it. The question becomes one of asking who the subject matter is for, whether or not he has the purpose and experience to acquire it, what its acquisition will do to and for the learner, and why it should be learned.²⁴

Subject matter is the medium through which the adult mind of the teacher and the immature mind of the learner find communion. It is a vehicle for growth. Knowledge is not power in itself, but knowledge which enables the individual to function more effectively adds to his power. The particulars of subject matter must be those for which the learner can find functional use in his own concrete world.²⁵

The emphasis given in this presentation to experimentalism is not intended to favor that point of view over others. In any faculty study of educational purposes all points of view should be considered. The fact remains, however, that many of the philosophical issues involve some attitude, favorable or unfavorable in whole or in part, to the experimentalist position. This is especially true in American education, in view of the widespread promulgation of some of the verbal patterns of the experimentalist position. We may be for or against the experimentalist position, but we cannot ignore the issues in any study of purposes for schooling.

WAYS OF STATING PHILOSOPHY AND/OR OBJECTIVES

Most curriculum study programs lead to the desire at some stage or other to get things down on paper and to issue printed or mimeographed statements. These usually take the form of "statements of point of view" or "statements of objectives" or some combination of the two.

Statements of Point of View or Principles

Such statements usually include the following points: (1) the needs and/or problems of children and youth; (2) major factors in our society; (3) the learning process; (4) the role of the school in relation to other agencies of society. Points one and two correspond to the "basic factors involved," presented earlier in this chapter (pages 34-51). These should be summarized and written down only after discussion and study. To line them up and hand them out cold at the beginning would probably have little result.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 99.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 101.

It is important in such a statement to recognize the part played in education by the home, the church, and youth groups. The school is only one of many educative agencies in society. Short summaries of the specific things which homes and churches, for example, teach to children will remind these agencies of their responsibilities and also indicate to professional educators the necessity of working with these groups on some of our most important areas of school purposes. On such matters as religious beliefs or ideals it may be necessary, especially in certain communities, to explore the problem at considerable length. This problem, incidentally, may provide one of the best leads to curriculum study among lay groups in a community, provided that the emotional background of the people is such as to make constructive analysis and discussion possible.

Statements of Purposes, or Objectives

These statements are really specific phases of general principles. They are designed to indicate the outcomes of learning. Curriculum-planning groups should be warned of the dangers of trying to distinguish between objectives, outcomes, specific aims, ultimate aims, and the like. They all come back to "what we are trying to do."

Forms in Which Objectives May Be Stated. One way to state objectives is in terms of character traits to be developed in the students. These may include such terms as "honesty," "loyalty," "ethical character," "good citizenship," "scientific mindedness," and the like. They may be broad or specific. Such statements are criticized because of lack of definition in terms of behavior, and also because they remind one of platitudes and glittering generalities. For certain purposes they may be useful and significant. If such terms are used as general headings, it is desirable to try to define them in behavioral or operational terms.

Often objectives are stated in terms of the functions of the school or activities of the teacher, such as "to provide for individual differences" or "to furnish opportunity for students to meet their needs." Such statements follow very naturally if we think of educational philosophy as the conscious purposes of an institution or a group of people striving to get into action. They should probably be used in certain situations, but should usually be supplemented by some other types of statement. For example, the purposes of elementary

education are stated in one publication as school functions along the following lines.

We believe . . . the elementary school must serve the child in his growth toward competent citizenship in a free society.

The school must serve the community.

The school must serve the nation.

The school must serve the one world idea.²⁶

These headings are, of course, supplemented by extensive and detailed presentation of the behaviors of children which would probably result if these functions of the school were carried out.

We can also put our objectives in terms of specific content to be learned or covered. For example, we may say that the school should teach the rivers, harbors, mountains, and other natural features of the earth's continents; or that youngsters should learn how to add, subtract, multiply, and divide proper, improper, and mixed fractions; or that the English program should include *Macbeth*, *The Merchant of Venice*, *David Copperfield*, and *The Mill on the Floss*.

The form most preferred by curriculum students is that of behavioral objectives. Here we state the "doing" side of the picture. For example, we may say that children should "think reflectively," which when broken down means that they should learn how to analyze and define problems, gather and interpret evidence, draw and check conclusions. Or we may say that as a result of their school experiences youth should read magazines devoted to current social problems. Another possibility is to say that youth should treat people courteously, regardless of their race, national origin, or station in life. In all of these the emphasis is on doing something. For example, the following statement, taken from a curriculum bulletin, defines "coöperativeness" in terms of behaviors, or actions:

Works well with a group or committee.

Respects constituted authority.

Recognizes and carries his share of responsibility.

Supports group and school activities.

Volunteers to bring in additional data or help in group projects.

Meets his obligations promptly and to best of his ability.

²⁶ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1947 Yearbook: *Organizing the Elementary School for Living and Learning* (National Education Association, Washington, 1947).

Adjusts his interests to the best interests of the group.

Treats others and their ideas with respect and courtesy.²⁷

This is also an example of how behavioral definition might be given to a general trait name of the type described at the beginning of this section. Behavioral objectives may then be identified in some cases as operational definitions of trait names, or in other cases as particularizations of lines of action involved in broad areas of educational purpose, such as health, family living, and vocations.

Some students hold that behavioral objectives may be divided into understandings, attitudes, and skills. Others insist that these are all static and functionally useless until they are translated into action. This leads into the debate as to whether behavior must necessarily be overt, or at least observable. If we do not insist too strictly on observable action as a criterion of behavior, we may accept a statement of beliefs or understandings. One way to compromise this difference is to state objectives strictly in behavior or action terms to start with, and then to state the understandings, attitudes, and skills on which these behaviors seem to depend. We may state the action as "reading articles on social problems in current magazines" and then try to identify the understandings, attitudes, and skills which might lead to this type of behavior. In this way we are saying that every behavior depends on some complex of understandings, attitudes, and skills.

Length and Detail of Statements. The use to which a statement will be put should determine its length and detail. A master list of objectives or purposes can be expanded or contracted as need arises.

A list of objectives which applies to the entire school system, elementary and secondary, and covers more than one school is usually designed for general use by lay people. Such a list should be short and to the point. Notice the following statement:

Our Schools

A preview of new developments in
the Milwaukee Public Schools

What are our schools trying to do? Once the simple answer, "Teach the three R's" would have satisfied. Now reading, writing, and arithmetic

²⁷ Eugene (Oregon) Public Schools.

are only one part of the school program. The schools today have additional tasks which are considered equal in importance to the three R's:

Health. Developing boys and girls healthy in body and mind.

Democratic citizenship. Guiding boys and girls to preserve our freedoms through democratic processes.

Living with others. Instilling in youth a respect for the feelings, opinions, rights, and contributions of others, plus a willingness to cooperate with others.

Clear thinking. Teaching the child to distinguish between fact and fancy, to sift the true from the false, to make sound judgments.

Knowledges and skills. Understanding the demands of useful tasks and doing them with intelligent performance.

Appreciations and understandings. Preparing each individual to live a rich, wholesome, personal and social life, and at the same time recognizing his obligations to society.²⁸

A short list of this type is useful also to unify a city-wide group of teachers dealing with various subjects, on various age levels, and in various schools. It provides a platform broad enough for all to stand on, and as such should probably not include more than four or five key items.

The statement of purposes for one school (elementary, senior high, junior high, junior college, etc.) can go into more detail. It will emphasize those general objectives of education particularly appropriate for children on various developmental levels. Such a statement could be used both by lay people and by teachers, and as such it might be developed appropriately in a P.T.A. group. It is always dangerous to lay down general suggestions for length; at the same time it is probable that few lists of all-school objectives should run over a page of typewritten material. The important thing to achieve with a list of all-school objectives is a sense of school-wide unity. Greater detail introduces diversity and some confusion.

On the two foregoing types of lists (for system-wide and school-wide unity) it is probably easiest to make the statements in terms of school function rather than to strive for behavioral objectives. This has the advantage of emphasizing the positive contribution to be made by a system-wide or school-wide attack on these functions. A statement of school function can, however, imply the related be-

²⁸ Milwaukee Public Schools, November, 1946.

havior, as in "to teach reflective thinking," "to provide opportunities for experience in group planning," and the like.

If greater detail is desired in school-wide or system-wide statements, it should be secured by expository discussion in connection with each major point, rather than by adding to the list. For example, a five-point statement for a city school system might be brought out with several pages of expository discussion of each point. This would permit publishing the list either by itself or with the related discussion material. Or it might be brought out with a number of questions for discussion purposes listed under each point. The statement of the Detroit Public Schools in the area of citizenship illustrates this possibility. In this statement the good citizen is defined in terms of five broad behaviors—cherishing democratic values, helping solve social problems, meeting basic human needs, practicing democratic human relationships, using knowledge, skill, and ability. Under the first heading, "Cherishes democratic values and bases his actions on them," we have the following general exposition:

The good citizen gives allegiance to the ideals of democracy. He cherishes values which are consistent with the democratic way of life and bases his actions upon these values. He has respect for the dignity and worth of human personality. He has faith in man's ability to solve common problems through the process of thinking. He is concerned with the general welfare of all people; he believes that human culture belongs to all men. He is loyal to the principles of equality of opportunity for all people. All other qualities of the good citizen stem from and are a part of this primary quality.

The Study proposes to examine the values now held by the young people in the schools and to encourage a growing commitment to the democratic values in action.²⁹

When we come to stating objectives for a field such as social studies, or for a specific course such as tenth-grade world history, or for a grade level, or for a student activity such as journalism or dramatics, or for a given resource or teaching unit, there is need for specific detail and also for statements in behavioral terms as much

²⁹ *Five Qualities of the Good Citizen*, a statement prepared by the staff of the Detroit Citizenship Education Study.

as possible. A good way to do this is to state the general behaviors as overall headings and then to indicate in detail the related understandings, attitudes, and skills. Examples of such lists are given in Chapter IV, dealing with curriculum planning in the broad fields and in the various school subjects, and in Chapter V, on resource units and other teaching aids.

Timing of Statements. When should written statements of philosophy or objectives be made? What degree of permanence should be attached to such statements?

Those who like to follow a strictly logical pattern prefer to have a statement of philosophy or objectives made at the beginning of a program of curriculum study. If we follow an approach similar to the ones shown in the diagram on page 32, this becomes impossible. For purposes of motivation and exploration much preliminary discussion must be carried on. In this approach, a written statement is prepared only when needed to help the group make progress. It may come anywhere along the line of the double arrows indicated on the diagram. We must remember that the purpose of such a statement is to facilitate the study program, and that the purpose of curriculum study is to improve educational practice. Each study program is an individual case, and the timing of printed statements will vary from one program to another.

It is unfortunate also to regard a statement as fixed. Continuous curriculum study means continuous revision and modification of every phase of the program. This point does not mean that we must be afraid to print the statement. If large numbers of people are involved, it is cheaper and more practical to print than to mimeograph. But we must not regard our statement, just because it is printed, as a final statement.

Other Ways of Stating Principles

A statement of objectives is a concrete way of stating general educational principles of points of view, but it is not the only way. We can, if we prefer, simply write out a general expository statement of the principles or guiding philosophy to which we hold. This general exposition may stand by itself, or, as is more usually the case, it may supplement or lead up to a listing of objectives.

As an example of a statement leading up to the listing of objec-

tives we have the following presentation taken from a mimeographed guide used in the Minneapolis Public Schools.

Educational objectives represent a choice of values. In America this set of values finds expression in the *democratic approach to living*. Those of us who accept democracy as a way of life believe that the freedom granted individuals must be matched by a concern for the common welfare. We believe in the participation of all concerned in making decisions. We believe in the planned evolution of programs of action and in a peaceful method of settling controversial matters. We believe a measure of one's usefulness is his contribution in social living.

Any statement of educational objectives in 1945 must consider *world relationships*. . . . We believe that the way the rest of the world manages its problems of food, housing, education, and government will have a direct effect on life in the United States and in Minneapolis. We believe ways must be found for the peoples of the world to work together so that problems may be solved without recourse to war. . . .³⁰

In a guide for elementary teachers issued in San Diego County, California, we find considerable exposition of principles used as a follow-up to the statement of objectives. These are stated partly in the form of "trends." For example, in connection with "underlying philosophy" are stated trends from one point of view toward another, and presumably more acceptable, point of view, as follows:

. . . tending to take democracy for granted, inherent in life outside of school, and school need not be concerned with democratic living.

. . . society can be understood and improved merely by passing on the cultural heritage; that is, through a study of the past.

. . . democracy permeates all human relationships; the school is a primary agency for democratic living; democracy must permeate the entire curriculum; democracy must be lived in school.

. . . society is dynamic and can be understood and improved only through acquaintance with and study of present-day life, the past being a means of understanding the present.

. . . learning conceived as a matter of accretion and addition of

. . . learning conceived as a matter of understanding whole rela-

³⁰ "Proposed Plan for System-Wide Curriculum Study in the Minneapolis Public Schools" (Minneapolis Public Schools, 1945), pp. 1-2.

isolated facts based on adult conceptions of what is of interest and importance.

tionships, facts being best learned as they relate to whole understandings—a means to an end, not ends in themselves; child interests and conceptions of what is important.³¹

AN ILLUSTRATIVE STATEMENT OF AREAS OF SCHOOL PURPOSES

The following statement of areas of school purposes is presented as illustrative of the kind which might grow out of the analysis of psychological, social, and philosophical factors presented in this chapter. It is stated in terms of school functions. Each statement is followed by a brief suggestion of the way in which it appears to tie back to some phases of the related psychological, social, and philosophical factors. Such a statement as this might be developed in any school system and then used as a basis for making more specific and detailed statements in terms of operational or behavioral objectives. Analysis of some of the curriculum issues related to carrying out these purposes is presented in Chapter III, on the all-school program.

To help every student grow up successfully in our society, to build his mental health and achieve maximum personality development and personal effectiveness. This school purpose ties back to the importance of every individual's attaining some degree of belongingness, participation, status, and security. From the social standpoint it assumes importance in terms of the fact that individual mental health is of significance in general social problems and in the individual's assumption of social responsibility. Philosophically it is consistent with the experimentalist's emphasis on the unique worth of the individual and the concern with his developing to his fullest potentiality. It is a distinct aspect of "self-realization" and helps fulfill most adequately the Hebraic-Christian concern with "respect for personality" as a key feature of the democratic way of life.

To teach the essential understandings, habits, and attitudes in physical health necessary for personal care, prevention of contagion,

³¹ San Diego County Schools, Curriculum Monograph No. 6, Elementary Education Series 1, *Trends in Elementary Education: A Teachers' Guide* (Office of the Superintendent of Schools, San Diego County, San Diego, September, 1945), p. 10.

and optimum personal development. Here again the experimentalist's concern with unique individual development and self-realization becomes one of the determining factors. The close interrelationship of physical and mental health indicates the importance of this objective in general personality development. Furthermore, the increase in interdependence points to the growing development of health as a social problem and the importance of group effort in making possible wider knowledge and use of health resources.

To help each student get a chance to sample various types of recreational activities and to develop skill in a few. Or, putting it another way, we are in the school concerned with helping children and youth develop enjoyment of living. This is again consistent with the self-realization emphasis of the experimentalist, but should not of course be exclusively identified with that philosophy. Psychologically we realize the importance of recreational activities in helping the individual achieve belongingness and participation in the social group. From the social standpoint we recognize the contribution made by widespread participation in recreational activities to general participation in a democratic social environment.

To provide each child with vocational guidance and that part of general education needed for vocational success. We have recognized the importance of occupational adjustment in the mental health and personality development of the individual. Our culture places great status value on the possession of a real job which pays money. It is an important function of the school, therefore, to help every boy and girl make adequate plans for this phase of their self-realization.

To teach the skills of democratic group planning and discussion. These are essential to group process, to that mutual responsibility of individual and group which is vital in democratic society. Group process should furthermore be seen as an instrument in helping many individuals achieve belongingness, participation, and status with their fellows. The success of social, political, and economic life in democratic society depends upon the degree to which large numbers of citizens have developed competence in this area of planning and discussion.

To teach the skills of reflective thinking and group problem-solving. Problem-solving is practically identified with the entire

learning process in the experimentalist philosophy. The skills of this process are, of course, closely related to those of planning and discussion. Only through development of competence in these areas can we as citizens grapple with the perplexities of our complex, specialized, and interdependent society. Only through realistic analysis of and attack upon our social problems can we reduce cultural lag. Only through an objective attack on their own personal problems can many individuals begin to realize greater degrees of belongingness, participation, status, and security.

To support the established family pattern of Western civilization by realistic study of problems and difficulties. Individuals depend on families for much of their personal happiness through belongingness and security. The continued existence of the family as we know it depends upon the degree to which we solve some of the problems confronting it, the problems brought about in part by the increasing complexity, mechanization, and specialization of modern life. From the standpoint of the experimentalist philosophy and its emphasis on self-realization, we must through education protect those features of family life which help guarantee respect for personality and the fullest development of individuals.

To develop an understanding of world-wide social problems and a concern with our country's role in world peace. World peace depends on the mental health of individuals. The features of modern social life which threaten the mental health of many individuals are world-wide in character, thus accentuating further the apparent helplessness of individuals in a complex, interdependent society. Self-realization of individuals can take place normally only in a world at peace, undisturbed by wars and threats of wars. In this way all three groups of factors—psychological, sociological, philosophical—give testimony to the importance of this function of the school.

To study continuously the meaning of democracy, to create awareness of need for the extension of that meaning, to protest against violation of the basic democratic faith. The democratic faith, with its combination of experimentalist and Hebraic-Christian emphasis on the uniqueness of the individual and respect for personality, appears to provide the best social framework for maximum achievement of belongingness, participation, status, and security. It should

serve as the instrument through which people can preserve human values in the midst of mechanization, specialization, and complexity. It provides the practical framework for group problem-solving, which is the major hope of society in reducing cultural lag. It represents the ideological convictions of the American people to such a degree that we may say the school has a mandate for its preservation and extension.

To develop literacy in all citizens: language, quantitative, economic, industrial. All of these contribute to self-realization, to maximum achievement of individual potentiality. But they are equally demanded by the everyday routine activities of a complex, specialized, mechanized society. Just what constitutes economic literacy is, of course, a controversial question, but it is part of the responsibility of school and society to help define it and to teach the elements of it in the school curriculum. Industrial literacy should include at least acquaintance with the basic vocabulary of the modern technological world, plus a few skills such as the reading of mechanical drawings, which constitute the medium of communication for technicians and engineers. Not that we are all going to be technicians and engineers, but our degree of competence in reducing cultural lag will depend on knowing what technicians and engineers are talking about and on being able in part to use their language.

SUMMARY: RELATION OF PURPOSES TO CURRICULUM PLANNING ORGANIZATION AND PROGRAMS

The defining of educational purposes is a group process and should be characterized by the most effective possible kind of democratic group participation. Involved in any consideration of educational purposes are a number of important psychological, sociological, and philosophical factors and issues. One of our problems today is to relate functionally the analysis of these factors to the everyday school problems and practices which we face and carry on. It is suggested that some generally recognized school problem be used as the point of departure in public-school curriculum programs and that the study of the fundamental and basic factors be introduced as needed.

Statements of educational purposes and principles should be viewed in terms of their functions. Only as we consider what a

given statement is designed to accomplish and the group whom it is designed to reach can we answer questions involved in deciding on the length and complexity of statements and the particular forms in which the objectives should be expressed. A school system might have a variety of statements for different purposes, ranging from short, general statements for public discussion and information to longer and more detailed statements for the use of professional groups preparing curriculum materials. Statements should always be flexible and tentative in character and should be in a continuous process of refinement and development. At all times we should try to maintain a state of functional interrelationship between our statements of purpose, on the one hand, and the everyday solution of important and pressing school problems, on the other.

The study of objectives and philosophy should be kept as close to home as possible and should provide for the fullest measure of widespread participation and interaction. It is not desirable to have a state committee or a state department formulate these statements and send them out to the local communities. But this does not exclude state departments or state leadership groups from participation. They can contribute much to the process by furnishing good study and discussion guides which raise the significant and important questions.

Occasionally, for strategic purposes, it may be desirable to pull together an all-state listing of objectives or an all-state philosophy of education. The need for this may be revealed by the statements sometimes coming from legislators that "educators ought to get together on what they're trying to do." A short statement compiled for discussion purposes can serve the purpose of indicating, at least, that not only educators but other citizens are thinking in general along the lines of broad, common purposes.

State-wide committees in social studies, language arts, mathematics, science, or other broad fields may help local committees by indicating in some detail the possible behavioral objectives in these fields of study. But in all cases it is the local group which should make the decisions on what it accepts, modifies, or rejects. The purpose of state leadership is to suggest possibilities, raise questions, indicate possible lines of direction.

It should also be remembered that it is in this first aspect of curriculum planning that lay people can and should play their most significant role. Lay citizens, untrained in techniques of professional education, are not competent to go far into the question of how things should be taught; but they are and should be very important factors in deciding what it is that should be taught. On overall philosophy and guiding objectives lay people should not only be "invited in"; they should be gone to and sought out for their contributions.

There is no reason why children and youth should not participate in basic discussions of philosophy and objectives. It is likely, however, that children and youth will make their greatest contribution in the classroom and school itself in connection with the process of pupil-teacher planning.

SUGGESTED DISCUSSION QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Compile a list of school problems which might be used as a basis for opening up the study of educational purposes in a school faculty.
2. Examine the statement of developmental tasks on pages 38-39 for the level of child development in which you are interested. To what extent do you find these in accordance with your own personal knowledge of children at that level? What revisions or suggestions for revision would you make? What implications, if any, do you think these developmental tasks have for school purposes and practices at that level?
3. Outline a discussion guide which might be used in the study of educational purposes by lay groups. Select one of the large areas in your outline and prepare sample questions which might be included in it.
4. Make a study of some philosophical school other than experimentalism. What implications do the tenets of this school appear to have for school purposes and curricular practices? Compare and contrast these with the implications of experimentalism. To what extent do you favor one or the other? Why?
5. Make a collection of statements of objectives from various school systems. Formulate a set of criteria in terms of which you would judge the adequacy of a statement of objectives. Apply your criteria to the statements you have collected. How, in your opinion, might these statements be improved? To what extent are they already adequate and usable?

6. Take a generalized trait name, such as "honesty" or "dependability," and attempt to define it operationally—that is, in terms of behavioral objectives.
7. How would you criticize the suggested outline of school purposes presented in the last section of this chapter? What would you add to this statement? What would you subtract? What changes in wording might make it more acceptable to you in particular instances?

»»» III «««

RELATING EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES TO THE ALL-SCHOOL PROGRAM

Educational purposes go to work within the framework of an all-school program. This program constitutes the curriculum, the instrumentality used by the school in its efforts to make continuous progress in realizing its purposes. This all-school program is defined here as including the following:¹

1. Classroom instruction based on some kind of course pattern—including content and method.
2. The out-of-class student activities, such as school clubs, dances and parties, athletics, student body government and management.
3. Guidance and/or counseling.
4. School-related work experience.
5. Community services and community relationships.
6. The intangibles of human relationships—teacher-administrator, teacher-pupil, administrator-pupil—which make up the social climate of the school as a community.
7. School services—health, library, recreational, and the like.

No curriculum study program can omit consideration of any of these phases of the all-school program. No one phase of the total curriculum can be expected alone to provide for all the education of children and youth. The detailed application of all phases of the program must be evaluated in the light of criteria provided by the all-school objectives.

Every school program is, of course, unique to a particular school. But all schools face certain common problems. It is the purpose of this chapter to examine some of these common problems and questions and to illustrate

¹ This listing of the features of the all-school program corresponds closely to the "essential characteristics of a good school" as stated by John Guy Fowlkes, the "essential characteristics of a good school" as stated by John Guy Fowlkes, *Planning Schools for Tomorrow: the Issues Involved* (Leaflet No. 64, United States Office of Education; Government Printing Office, Washington, 1942), pp. 6-7. It also follows along the lines set forth by the movement for "life adjustment education" in the secondary school, sponsored by the United States Office of Education.

trate the possibilities of relating the analysis of these problems to the defining of educational purposes. Considerable emphasis is given to some of the issues involved in the patterns of classroom instruction. The reason for this is the great body of controversial material which has grown up around this one phase of the curriculum. This emphasis does not imply that other phases of the curriculum are less important.

The analysis of school practices in the all-school program in relation to educational purposes is a continuous process. Examining these school practices should be regarded as concurrent with the further refinement and definition of educational purposes.

THE QUESTION OF GENERAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION

It is necessary, to begin with, for curriculum groups to arrive at some point of view concerning "general education." This term has been used by most educational workers to mean that education which should be common to all students. Other education, applied to individuals only or to any group within the whole, is called "special education." In some quarters a somewhat narrower use of the term is found. General education in these groups is identified with "liberal" (or academic) education, while other types become known as "vocational" or "practical" education.

At any rate, this terminology came into being as a result of the attempt to differentiate one type of education from another. When large numbers of students began entering our high schools after 1900, teachers and administrators felt that the traditional course of study was no longer universally applicable, if indeed it ever had been. The myth evolved that the traditional course of study was good for college preparation purposes and was applicable to students of superior intelligence and, possibly, of superior socioeconomic status. For the new student population group, according to this viewpoint, a more "practical" education was needed—particularly one which stressed handwork. The next step provided the extension into "vocational" education, meaning, as a rule, not occupational education in general, but education for the mechanical trades. This led to the absurdity of assuming that if a student were deficient in abstract intelligence, he must of necessity have high ability in working with things!

But teachers and administrators became dissatisfied with this artificial and in most cases unworkable distinction. They saw that even

the so-called low-intelligence group needed certain things in common with the college-bound group—such as physical and health education, the development of as much skill as possible in speech and writing, the understanding of government and social problems. They felt also that the so-called college-preparatory group needed some skills generally useful in earning a living. It also became more and more clear that college preparation constituted one very specialized form of a kind of occupational or vocational education and that the term “vocational education” could not justifiably be restricted to those occupations involving manual labor or handwork.

On the other hand, it seemed, a good case might be made for the distinction between general and special education. In this way the distinction would be made not between one group and another of the student body, but between one kind of education and another kind. Each student, whether college-bound or headed for work at high-school graduation, needed certain things in common with all other students, and he also needed some things peculiar to his own group or individual circumstances. So teachers eagerly seized this new and apparently more workable terminology.

Trouble soon began to develop, however, with this new distinction as well. It was not clear whether common education meant common courses, common experiences, common subject matter, or what. It seemed superficially easy to designate as general education the courses required of all students, such as English, physical education, and American history. But those who preferred what they called an “experience” approach emphasized that it was the experience which might be considered common rather than the course label under which that experience might be had. This raised the question of the degree of specific detail which should be in the common experience. Did common experience mean common reading materials, common activities, and the like? Obviously, it could not without introducing the utmost in mechanical uniformity, which would be in fundamental contradiction to the thinking of the experience advocates.

This dilemma led to another attack on the problem—in terms now of common objectives or common behaviors. It was argued that the experiences, as well as the courses, could be and should be diversified, provided they were designed to help students grow along com-

mon lines of direction. The Harvard report followed this approach when it recommended that general education be aimed at developing the ability to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, and to discriminate among values.² But the writers of that report then seemed to shift to another conception of general education and recommended that all students take three units in English, three in science and mathematics, and two in social studies!³

As soon as we try to make objectives behavioral and specific, we run into difficulties in distinguishing between the general and the special. It is easy enough to identify some behaviors as special. Most people would agree that the ability to solve quadratic equations by completing the square is a special behavioral objective rather than a general one. But which ones, then, are general? It is likely that even the Harvard committee could not get unanimous agreement on their four rather broadly stated behaviors. This difficulty of securing agreement on behaviors is, of course, testimony to the hard fact of individual differences and individual needs.

If we find it difficult to secure agreement on common specific behaviors, it is relatively easy to identify and agree on common areas of human problems or needs in terms of which more specific behavioral objectives might be stated. That is, although we can't agree on the specific understandings, attitudes, and skills which a student should develop in relation to health, we can readily agree that health is an important common area. If we can identify these common areas of need, we should have a workable basis for a definition of general education. The specific pattern of behaviors to be developed within these areas might differ from one student to the next; likewise there would be considerable variation in the experiences which students might have to develop these behaviors. This viewpoint is expressed in the statements that "general education is that which prepares the young for the common life of their time and their kind"⁴ and that "Exponents of general education believe that

² Committee on the Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society, *General Education in a Free Society* (Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1945), pp. 64-65.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 100.

⁴ Earl James McGrath, "The General Education Movement," *Journal of General Education* (a selected brochure; State University of Iowa), March 10, 1947, p. 3.

education should be more closely related to the vital needs and problems of human beings."⁵

Approached from this standpoint, the formulation of the seven cardinal principles of secondary education in 1918 constituted an outline of general education areas. But if we define general education in terms of common major areas of needs, we run into the question whether there are areas which are not common. To define general education implies also a definition of special education. But which of the major areas of human needs or human living can be left out of the general group and reserved for the special? There isn't one of the seven cardinal principles, for example, which could be thought of as special rather than common. The same holds true for the areas proposed by the Educational Policies Commission and the various commissions of the Progressive Education Association. When we get hold of a basis for defining the common factors in a general education, the distinction between general education and special education breaks down. We are forced to recognize that all students have needs in the important areas which we define.

It appears, then, that it will be more rewarding for a school faculty to define its all-school program in relation to the major areas of human needs, without struggling with the difficult distinction between general education and special education. So long as we stay with broad areas of major human problems and needs, *all education is general*. But as soon as we get into the definition of specific behaviors to be developed, *all education becomes individual, and therefore special*. This means that when we get to working on specific, detailed objectives in the various fields of the curriculum (language arts, mathematics, social studies, etc.), such formulations must be advisory and suggestive only. For they must be interpreted by the teacher as he guides the pupil-teacher planning process in terms of the specific individual needs and circumstances of each of his students—in so far as it is possible to do so.

The argument in this chapter is not intended to disparage the contribution of the general education movement in American education. This movement cleared away the very formidable obstacle provided by the idea that all education (and all students) could be divided into academic and college-preparatory, on the one hand,

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

and practical and vocational, on the other. What is suggested here is that school faculties not expend too much time and effort on the attempt to draw a fine line between general and special education. It should be enough in most curriculum planning programs to sketch out the most important areas of human needs and to get to work on the many problems and issues involved in these areas. The next section of this chapter is designed to suggest and explore some of these problems and issues. Following that is presented an analysis of some of the problems and issues involved in various aspects of the all-school program, such as the course of study, guidance, and student activities.

ANALYSIS OF SOME MAJOR AREAS OF HUMAN NEEDS

In the preceding chapter, a sample statement of important areas of school purposes was presented. Four of these areas—mental health and personality development, physical health, occupations, and recreation—are selected for analysis here in relation to features of the all-school program. Similar questions might be raised in relation to other important areas, such as democratic citizenship, family living, and world relationships.

Mental Health and Personality Development

It is not intended, generally, in the order of listing of these areas to suggest an order of importance. But this first point is the exception. It is definitely intended to carry the conviction that this area is the first and most important business of public education. Mental health is of the greatest importance in occupational adjustment and success, in family relationships, and in community and national life. It is probably the chief factor in good intergroup or intercultural relations. And it is being recognized today as a most significant factor in world relationships as well.

In order that the human race may survive on this planet, it is necessary that there should be enough people in enough places in the world who do not have to fight each other, who are not the kinds of people who will fight each other, and who are the kinds of people who will take effective measures whenever it is necessary to prevent other people fighting.⁶

⁶ Brock Chisholm, "On the March for Mental Health," *Survey Graphic*, XXXVI, No. 10: 509 (October, 1947).

The importance of mental health as a school objective does not mean, as it is often charged, that teachers will become amateur psychiatrists. Teachers will not set to work to diagnose psychoses or neuroses, or to prescribe treatment for them; nor will they directly use the specific diagnostic or therapeutic techniques of the medical profession.

What, then, is the job of the school in mental health? It must first be recognized that resources for mental health are developed slowly by children as they grow up. For the most part, sufferers from psychoses and neuroses are not people who have lost their mental health, but people who never succeeded in building it. Mental health in the adult is the result of years of successful living, beginning in earliest childhood. So, from the first day that the child enters nursery school, kindergarten, or first grade, it is the job of the school to provide the kind of environment within which that child may have the experiences that build for mental health and effective personality. The work of the school and of teachers in this regard is constructive and positive rather than diagnostic and remedial.

The question for curriculum workers in this area, then, becomes this: "How can the all-school program be directed so as to provide a better environment for children to have successful and happy experiences?" It will be necessary to examine the course of study program and its related practices, guidance and counseling practices, the work experience program if any, community relationships, student activities, and all other phases of school life. Here are some of the questions with which we must be concerned as we examine the all-school program in relation to mental health and personality development:

1. Do children somewhere along the time of the junior-high-school grades have a chance to learn the facts about growth, about the changes taking place in their bodies? We know that these physical changes provide one of the most dangerous sources of anxiety and worry for children.

2. Does the school program try to help shy, awkward, or retiring children learn some of the skills needed for social acceptance by their age-mates? These are very simple skills, such as dancing and a minimum set of rules for social know-how, but without them a child will be isolated from his age group.

3. Does the school attempt to keep school dances, parties, and other social affairs free from domination by cliques and free from the imposition of class and caste distinctions? If the school fails in this, it sets the stage for many children to feel a lack of belongingness.
4. Does the school program provide enough varied types of student activities so that all students can find something they are "good at" and in terms of which they can secure some status and prestige?
5. Does the school try to establish contacts to make work experience possible? Paid work experience in the community is one of the best means for high-school students to gain the feeling of adult social and economic status. (See page 101.)
6. What effect do the grading, failure, and promotion policies of the school have upon the fears and tensions of the children? What can be done about this problem?
7. Does the overall school spirit promote a feeling of belongingness on the part of all students? This is one of the very real values of school songs, rituals, and the like. To the extent that interscholastic athletics help with this, they are making a very real contribution to the mental health of all students in the schools.
8. Does the teaching in the social studies and science help to prepare students for the fact of rapid and bewildering change in contemporary life? Such teaching, of course, does not leave the students with the notion that all change is desirable simply because it is change. Rather it attempts to help them evaluate proposed changes objectively in terms of criteria.
9. Do the teachers understand the family backgrounds of the children sufficiently to use them as guides to assignments and expectations? In elementary schools, particularly, teachers request (or command) children to bring things from home—costumes for school or class plays, gifts for mutual exchange at parties, cloth for art work, and the like. As a result of class or economic factors, or unique psychological problems, some pupils cannot get these things from their parents. These pupils are often reprimanded by teachers for their failure. The situation is one conducive to frustration and sense of inadequacy and failure.
10. Does the school program help children and youth formulate standards of ideals and conduct? The confused standards of our present-day society leave many youth frustrated and unhappy. Where can they get guidance in working out these problems? Many get such guidance in the church, but there are thousands of other youth who are not connected with churches.
11. Do the school administrators and teachers emotionally accept every

child as worth-while, regardless of that child's race or ethnic origin, or the religious affiliation of his parents or ancestors?

12. Does the record-keeping program of the school provide for the gathering of adequate information on the problems of individual students? Does the work program of the teachers permit time for the use of these records?

13. Is the course of study program rich and flexible enough to provide for meeting many types of needs and interests?

14. Does the guidance program guide students in realistic self-appraisal so that they may accurately interpret their abilities and take steps to bring about the highest achievement consistent with these?

The foregoing questions are designed as leads to the study of the all-school program in relation to the area of mental health and personality development. It should be noted that these questions lead into every phase of school life—classroom instruction, student activities, work experience, guidance, community relationships, the intangible area of “human relationships,” and the area of “school services.”

Physical Health

We have long been reminded from many sources of our national shortcomings in the area of physical health. In practically any curriculum study program there is unquestioning agreement that this constitutes one of the most important functions of education. What, then, are some of the critical questions we must raise in relation to this function as we examine the various aspects of the all-school program?

1. Does the school program provide opportunities for studying realistically the health codes of the local community and the degree of enforcement of these codes?

2. Is there a school lunch program? If so, is it conducted as a means of teaching good nutritional habits and practices?

3. Does the school program teach students how to become skilled consumers of health services? Does it provide a basis for evaluating the claims and performances of various health agencies and groups of medical practitioners?

4. Does the guidance program of the school help individual students

adjust to their own health needs and circumstances? Does the guidance program adequately consider health factors in helping students make their academic schedules, choose student activities, and the like?

5. Does the school policy on make-up work adequately take into account the needs of students during convalescence from illness?

6. Do students get a chance somewhere along the line to study health as a major social problem in the community, state, and nation?

7. Are students helped to plan their vocational careers in relation to their own health resources?

8. Is the competitive spirit of the school so sharp (in scholarship, student activities, etc.) that overambition leads to nervous and emotional tension?

9. Have school and community agencies worked out plans whereby medical and dental services and equipment may be made available to students from low-income families?

10. Does the school work closely with parents on the health problems of individual children?

11. Is the medical examination service of the school good enough to provide a basis for deciding which students can safely take part in strenuous physical activity?

12. Are health factors considered in the placement of students in work experience programs?

13. Does the administrative policy of the school make it possible for teachers to guard their health and that of their students by staying home when they are ill with contagious diseases?

14. Does the school carry on a testing and inoculation program? If so, is this made into a good educational experience, or is it just routine?

The matter of school-community relationships becomes particularly important in this area of health. Administrators and teachers share their health education functions with city health departments, physicians' associations, Red Cross and Y groups, city and county welfare agencies, and, in some instances, religious organizations. The providing of medical service and equipment for children from low-income groups is a responsibility which no community agency can assume alone. Defining the job of public education in this area, therefore, and the working out of that job in the all-school program demands the closest coöperation between the schools and other community agencies. For this reason, health is often one of the best areas on which to begin a program of curriculum study designed to attract the participation of lay people.

Occupations

This area has become one of the most controversial in modern education. At one extreme, people deplore the vocational character of much present-day schooling and call for a return to "liberal" education; they would grant importance to vocational education only for students incapable of studying the so-called liberal subjects. At the other extreme, enthusiasts advocate that vocational education constitute the main business of schooling for the vast majority of students. There is confusion also in definition. Some teachers identify vocational education almost entirely with the manual trades and possibly with the business subjects. Others think of almost all education as having vocational implications and values.

Perhaps we can start from the obvious fact that practically all the youth now in school will some day have to work for a living. This means that schooling, somewhere along the line, whether it be elementary, secondary, or higher, should help every student prepare for that responsibility. It follows, then, that all students should have some education which we might call "vocational" or "occupational." Obviously, this will come early in the lives of some students and late in the lives of others. In some cases and for certain occupations, the school will provide specific, detailed, technical education; in others the school will concentrate on the more general skills and attitudes needed for occupational success and leave specialized training for higher institutions or outside agencies. But no public school, however professedly liberal may be its objectives, can neglect the function of providing education for earning a living.

In developing a program to meet the occupational needs of students, the school must take into account the following realities of modern social and personal life.

First, there has been a long-term decline in the ratio of production jobs to other jobs in the total labor market. This has been accompanied by an increase in "service" jobs. The decline in the ratio of production jobs has been particularly marked in agriculture. The great need for production during the war and the immediate post-war years has slowed down, but not reversed, this trend.

Second, there is, at the same time, an increased emphasis on the use of tools, not only in production, but also in service type jobs. It

has been estimated that about half the jobs in the labor market today demand some facility in the use of tools. Gasoline station work, for example, comes under the heading of service rather than production, but it demands manual skills and some understanding of tools and machinery.

Third, there has been and probably will continue to be a long-term trend in employing higher percentages of women in the labor market. This will involve greater employment of married women, a situation which brings up a number of related social problems.

Fourth, union membership has increased among workers in many fields. Our labor unions include not only production workers, but also such service workers as musicians, actors, teachers, and newspaper reporters. Children and youth in school today will make up the bulk of union membership in the future. Whether these unions make the maximum contribution possible to their members' welfare and to the economy in general depends on how these children and youth are educated for union participation and responsibilities.

Fifth, there appears to be a long-term trend, disguised by war conditions, to push higher and higher the age of entrance to the labor market. This trend becomes particularly marked during periods of depression. In one sense, our society views the high school as a depository for youth who are unwanted in the world of work.

Sixth, the difficulties involved in planning a vocational training program for the secondary school are rendered more complicated by the tremendous variation in the amount of specialized preparation needed for various kinds of work. It takes a great deal of specialized training for the skilled trades. On the other hand, many of our youth in school will work at jobs requiring little special training. The industries often prefer to give this minimum training themselves. This state of affairs results in a very confused picture so far as the job-training responsibilities of the public school are concerned.

Seventh, our world of work is characterized by increasing specialization. The U.S. *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* has included 20,000 separate jobs. And yet these diverse, specialized workers are extremely interdependent. Our culture demands a higher degree of cooperative effort among workers than ever before. This kind of ef-

fort will not result when workers in one field are hostile to and suspicious of workers in other fields. It is becoming more important that youth in school learn to respect and value the contribution of all workers.

Eighth, job success appears to depend upon personal relationships as much as upon technical skill. Large numbers of people get and lose one job after another because they cannot get along with people. Our schools, therefore, carry a tremendous responsibility in the area of mental and emotional health. It is on this point that two important areas of education—mental health and occupational success—become significantly interrelated.

The participants in any curriculum development program must therefore give attention to the following questions if they wish to be concerned with the area of occupational success.

1. What responsibility does the school have in the study of job trends and the labor market in the community and region? If the school doesn't see to this matter, who should, or who will? Does the school have an obligation not to flood the labor market with workers trained in a particular field?

2. How can a school define its responsibility for job training in certain fields? How can a school cooperate with labor unions, industry, and other agencies of job training?

3. Should the high school do any specific job training at all? Or should this be left to junior colleges, vocational schools, etc.?

4. Should the high school cooperate with business, industry, and unions in developing a part-time work experience program? What are the values of such a program? Should it be viewed primarily as job training, as job exploration, or as "general" education?

5. Does every teacher have a role in vocational guidance? If so, what is it? How can teachers effectively carry out this role?

6. Does the classroom teaching program provide anywhere for giving youth an overview of many occupations? Does it aim at giving youth respect for all honest work? What media are particularly effective for providing this overview of the major occupational fields?

7. How can the student activities program be used to help youth develop skills in personal relationships and working with others?

8. What point of view with regard to the employment of married women should prevail in the counseling program for girls? Should this counseling emphasize the importance of careers outside the home, or

should it play up the values of home and family work? If it becomes a matter of the individual student, what criteria can be used to indicate the approach to be followed in particular cases?

9. What should be the vocational education objective of the school in relation to the so-called "low-ability" student?

10. What should the social studies program of the school teach about labor unions?

11. Should the school become involved in job placement and follow-up guidance?

Another important and difficult question in this area is that of guiding the so-called "low-ability" students. For many years the solution seemed obvious—steer them toward manual or industrial work. But the vocational shop teachers revolted against this and in many places jacked up their standards to exclude any but top-notch students from their programs. Then in some places these students were directed into commercial work. It is clear that vocational shop and vocational commercial courses should not be dumping grounds for the academically unfortunate. But we are still left with the question of how to help these boys and girls prepare to earn their livings and to play significant and contributing roles in their family and community life.

We may raise the question whether there are not many service jobs which depend more upon personality and good human relationships than they do upon technical skill or abstract intelligence. Bus drivers, waiters, gasoline station operators, many types of retail clerks, should be top-grade people from the standpoint of emotional balance and adjustment and ability to work with people, but they do not need to develop high levels of technical skill or abstract reasoning. It would seem, then, that the school program for youth who seem likely to enter those occupations should stress personality development and good mental health as part of occupational preparation. Perhaps this can be done best through a rich program of varied student activities, with a minimum of specific vocational preparation. This does not mean, of course, that personality and mental health should be neglected with the higher-I.Q. students. But there would probably be opportunity for the low-I.Q. students to spend a greater portion of the school day on informal student activities and a lesser part in formal class work. The important thing

is not to neglect the possibilities of the student activities phase of the curriculum in connection with the overall school objective of occupational preparation.

Recreation and Enjoyment of Living

There is general agreement that the school should help children and youth expand their interests and develop the means for having fun in a manner consistent with the rights of others. Just as we too often think of the industrial arts department as the one exclusively concerned with education for lifework, so do we also think too exclusively of recreation as athletics and the recreation function of the school as discharged by the physical education department. Here are some questions which might be used by a faculty concerned with recreation as an all-school objective.

1. What is the contribution which every school subject might make to the enjoyment of living? Do teachers help children and youth see the fun side of everything studied in school?
2. Do all youth in the school get a chance to learn some game or sport which can be enjoyed singly or in small groups and which can be continued in adult life?
3. Are the programs in art, music, and handicrafts slanted toward the fun possibilities for all youth, or are these subjects taught from the standpoint of developing high competence in a few gifted students?
4. Is the student activities program varied enough to open up fun possibilities for many students? Is the program open to all students or only to those who keep up a certain grade point average?
5. Is the school program geared into the community recreation program? Are the functions of school and community in recreation carefully defined?
6. Do the teachers and counselors of the school try to help youth find new and rich interests and means of enjoyment of life? Do they avoid the mistake of imposing their own patterns of enjoyment?

PATTERNS IN CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION

The course of study offering may be organized primarily either in terms of the logical patterns of human knowledge or in terms of some conception of the needs and problems of children and youth and of society. This does not mean that the logical patterns of human knowledge are without application to the needs and problems of

human beings; nor does it imply that we can study needs and problems without introducing some of the traditional content derived from patterns of knowledge. But the organization of the course of study must choose one basic underlying principle or the other. It is really a rare instance of an "either-or" proposition.

If we base organization on the patterns of human knowledge, we will organize our program as school subjects. These may be rather finely drawn, in which case we have what some call a "subject-centered" curriculum—meaning subjects in narrow slices. Or they may be broadly defined and consist of combinations of narrow patterns, in which case we have what some call a "broad-fields" or a "fusion" curriculum—still subjects, but sliced not quite so thin.

On the other hand, if we organize the course of study experience around the problems and needs of youth, we face another issue. To what extent should we have preplanned guide lines to the study of such problems and needs? To what extent should children and youth plan and organize the program without such guide lines? If we have guide lines, we may refer to them as a "scope and sequence pattern" or as an "integrative core." Of course, any learning experience or field of study has a scope and a sequence, but the term here is used in the more specialized sense of a particular way of indicating guide lines for an integrative core. In Chapter IV we shall note the use of this term in describing patterns in a given instructional field. On the other hand, the advocates (sometimes the opponents!) of free planning without guide lines refer to theirs as the child-centered curriculum, or sometimes as the "experience curriculum."

Much confusion has developed because of surface similarities between a broad fields program and an integrative core. Actually the broad fields program represents only a more flexible arrangement of the knowledge of the human race, whereas the core-type program bases its approach on needs and problems, without commitment to any field of content as such.

The confusion has developed because both the broad fields program and the integrative core seek to escape from the shackles of a narrow departmentalization of subject matter. This issue of departmentalization cuts across the more fundamental issue of whether our organization is based on the traditional patterns of human

knowledge or upon the needs and problems of children and youth in modern society.

The Problem of Pattern in the Elementary School

On the elementary level, we hear of "departmentalized" and "non-departmentalized" schools. As these terms are used today, a departmentalized school is one in which teachers specialize in the teaching of various subjects. For example, one teacher may have classes in arithmetic from the third or fourth grade through the sixth or seventh. On the other hand, a nondepartmentalized school is one in which one teacher teaches one group of children on one grade level for all or most of the day, or, as in many rural schools, a group of children in a number of grades for the entire day. There are various gradations between these extreme positions, and we hear occasionally of semi- or partly-departmentalized elementary schools.

The advocates of departmentalization stress the values which come from having a specialized teacher, intensively trained in one subject or field, who can devote time to the preparation of his specialty. The opponents of departmentalization are afraid that the child gets lost in the shuffle. They insist that in a nondepartmentalized school a teacher having fewer children to meet during the school day can know those children better as individuals. From the standpoint of knowing the child (that is, guidance) there appears to be a very important difference between a departmentalized and a nondepartmentalized organization in the elementary school.

But from the standpoint of classroom instruction, there may be practically no difference. Within the framework of an approach based on the organization of human knowledge, an elementary teacher in a nondepartmentalized setup may organize his program in terms of broad fields. Yet in many nondepartmentalized schools, a teacher teaching one group of children all day may follow a rigid daily schedule of narrowly organized subjects. Even in one-room rural schools, we find "third-grade spelling," "fourth-grade arithmetic," and the like. In some states it is common to refer to rural teachers as teaching thirty-five or forty different "classes." So a nondepartmentalized school does not preclude the organization of the course of study into narrow segments.

Within both departmentalized and nondepartmentalized elementary schools there may be a number of gradations between the separate subject approach at one end and the broad fields at the other. Ordinarily we think of English as a separate subject, and yet we may find it subdivided into such subjects as grammar, composition, literature, and spelling. In the other direction English may be absorbed with speech and dramatics into a broad field of language arts. To go a step farther, language arts may be absorbed with social studies into a still broader field of "social living." There is no one point at which we can say that an organization ceases to be "broad fields" and becomes "separate subjects," or vice versa.

But an integrative core setup in the elementary school gets over into the other way of looking at patterns—in terms of problems, social functions, or needs. Dr. Paul Hanna has led the movement for an integrative core based on a scope and sequence, with the scope defined in terms of social functions. As worked out in the Santa Barbara (California) public schools as well as in the state patterns for Virginia, Mississippi, and Arkansas, these social functions usually include the following: conservation of resources; transportation; communication; producing and distributing goods and services; organizing and governing; satisfying spiritual and aesthetic needs; recreation and enjoyment. Notice particularly that this organization does not commit anyone to the use of any particular subjects or broad fields. The activities of students may be carried on without reference to any organization of materials under the headings of English, social studies, arithmetic, geography, and the like.

In some schools the social functions pattern of the integrative core provides the guide to the content, or the problems to be selected. It can be said, then, that the children also will need to grow in certain related abilities—language abilities, quantitative skills, and the like. Teachers and pupils face the decision whether the language and arithmetic skills will be worked on entirely in relation to the core experience, or whether there may be drill activities aimed particularly at those skills by themselves. If they decide to have some language and arithmetic activities outside the problems worked on in the integrative core, as often happens, the core tends to become identified more and more with the so-called content areas—social studies and science. In such cases the actual practices carried on in

an integrative core may differ very little from those carried on in a good broad fields organization.

The intermixture of the two approaches has even led to the development of a term—social studies core of the curriculum—meaning that the elementary-school program is organized around problems or content in the social studies. This has led the advocates of the physical and biological sciences to protest that “science” also may serve as the core. We have had much confusion in the terminology as a result.

From the standpoint of strict definition, however, the integrative core in the elementary school is not a certain subject as the center of the curriculum, but some structure, either of social functions or of the problems and needs of children, which is independent of any organization of human knowledge as such. This core may be expressed as a scope-and-sequence pattern in which the scope is represented by social functions, such as listed on page 142, and the sequence is indicated by “centers of interest,” such as home, community, region, nation, and world. Teachers and children following such a pattern may work on a “unit” on dairying in Wisconsin as an example of the state as a center of interest for a particular grade level and of dairying as an activity within the social function of producing essential goods and services. Such guide lines are, of course, extremely broad and flexible. Teachers and children are not required to “cover” either dairying or any other activity on that grade level. The scope-and-sequence pattern serves as a guide only and not as a strait jacket. It leaves much opportunity and responsibility for adaptation to the needs and circumstances of particular schools and groups of children and for group planning in the classroom.

Not all “unit teaching” or “unit doing” in the elementary school, however, depends on the integrative core or scope-and-sequence approach. Having a “unit” usually means having some project which engages the attention and efforts of the entire group of children for a good portion of the school day. The rest of the day may be devoted to individualized, small-group, or sometimes large-group drill sessions in the skills, with an effort to relate the skills to the topic of the unit. This practice doesn’t fall too clearly into any of the traditional curriculum categories—such as experience, core, broad fields—but it represents the actual practice of many elementary schools

which have broken away from a school day sliced into narrow subject segments.

The Problem of Pattern in the Secondary School

There have been two major revolts against the predominance of the separate-subject pattern in the secondary-school course of study. They have both taken the form of claiming a larger block of time in the school day during which a group of students stay together with one teacher. But the two movements are essentially and fundamentally different from each other.

One of these movements follows the broad fields point of view. Its objectives are to provide a broader organization of human knowledge. This movement has taken various forms—fusion, correlation, and the like. “Integration” has been the key word in the thinking of those who have advocated changes along these lines, although some integrationists insist that integration takes place in the student, not in the materials or content of instruction. In some cases the attempt has been made to fuse or correlate English and social studies. Most often one teacher handles a double-period class replacing one period of English and one period of social studies in the students’ programs. This double-period class may be called “English and social studies,” or it may be given some other title such as “social living” or “social culture.”

The essential preoccupation of this movement with the unification of subject matter is demonstrated by another tendency. Whenever the advocates of this movement are unable to secure a “fused” course with one teacher, they will settle for separate courses taught by two different teachers who plan their work together. This goes occasionally by the name “correlation.” Sometimes it is facilitated by the administrative device known as the block, or crisscross, schedule, which is a good device for promoting interfaculty or teacher-teacher coöperative planning.

Historically, this fusion, or integration, movement has operated within the bounds of single periods as well as of double periods. It produced, for example, the fusion of botany and zoölogy into the conventional one-period biology course of the present day. It also brought about the combination of economics and sociology on the

twelfth-grade level into "problems of democracy," also a one-period course.

The essential point, however, is that the fusion and/or correlation movement is based on the organization-of-knowledge approach. It has been concerned with the thickness of the slice rather than with the nature of the cake. This makes it fundamentally different from the other revolt, which has taken place against the separate-subject organization of the secondary-school program.

For the other movement grew philosophically out of a concern with the needs and problems of youth, and administratively out of the home room. It is known administratively as "core" or "common learnings," or sometimes as "general education." Home rooms developed because there seemed no place or time in the regular subjects to deal with such matters as personality development, vocational guidance, manners, getting along with people, orientation to the school, hobbies, and family living. So the home room time was added to the school day. But it was thought of as extracurricular; teachers were emotionally unprepared to accept the new responsibilities, often thrust upon them suddenly; and the students often regarded the whole thing as pointless because there were no grades or examinations. Good teaching materials were scarce along these lines, and teachers resorted to many devices in order to "use up the time." In some cases the home room degenerated into a routine affair centered around record keeping, attendance reporting, and program making. There have been, of course, many fine home room situations in which skilled and enthusiastic teachers have planned with youth to work on genuine needs and problems. In general, though, neither teachers nor administrators have been satisfied with an approach which separates out from the pale of the curriculum the most vital and important concerns of youth in our culture.

The question therefore arises: why not move the home room into "regular" curriculum? Out of this has grown experimentation with two- and three-period classes, which form the large block of time with one teacher in the school day. In addition the students take one-period elective subjects. But the two- and three-period class setup has one commitment only—to help youth work on their major personal and social problems and needs. The teacher of this class

also serves as the counselor, and such a setup provides a much needed unity between guidance and curriculum. Teacher and students in this class have no commitment to any school subject as such. The core class in this sense is *not* a combination of English and history or of any other subjects.

This class may work with or without preplanned guide lines. If guide lines are used, they may be organized in some kind of scope-and-sequence pattern, as in elementary school. The scope may take the form of the social functions, or it may be stated in important areas of living for youth—occupational life, family life, enjoyment of living, etc.—which we sometimes think of as general education. If some guide lines are needed for sequence, they may also be provided. Obviously, the needs of ninth-graders in the area of family living are going to be different from those of most twelfth-graders, and the guide lines should help teachers and students to recognize this.

While there have been many high schools experimenting with fusion or correlation, there have been relatively few to tackle the core, or common learnings, class directly. We must also recognize that many a fusion class has gone by the name “core curriculum,” to the intense bewilderment of teachers, curriculum workers, administrators, youth, and the lay public. So the actual instances of core in this sense have been very few. One of the best examples is the experimental unit at Evanston Township High School, Illinois.⁷

The problem of pattern in secondary education applies also to the particular patterns for individual students. Even in an integrative core approach, there are many electives offered on a separate-subject basis. An elective subject in ancient history, for example, may be organized as a section of human knowledge. So the question arises as to the combinations of subjects which certain students should plan to take as they go through high school.

In the past, this problem has been approached in terms of certain standardized patterns of subjects—known sometimes as “tracks.” One group of students takes a college-preparatory pattern, often spoken of as a “college-preparatory curriculum.” Another group takes a “commercial curriculum,” another a “vocational (industrial)

⁷ C. E. MacConnell, Ernest O. Melby, and Christian Arndt, *New Schools for a New Culture* (Harper & Brothers, New York, 1943).

curriculum." In each of these track patterns the student takes certain subjects.

Although these track patterns have made some contribution to administrative convenience, they have had one bad effect. They subdivide the student population of a secondary school into artificial groups which become the symbols of prestige distinctions. Some schools have even printed the lists of subjects required in each track and have put the name of the track pattern in large type at the top of the card.

Such track patterns are an attempt to short-cut the process of individual guidance. Actually there should be as many tracks as there are students. Every student deserves a combination of offerings for his own needs and circumstances, and any identity with some other student's program should be purely coincidental. If we have a setup with a teacher-counselor working on a double-period basis with perhaps sixty or eighty advisees, much more individual attention can be given to students. And even if we have such a bad counselor-student ratio that little counseling can be done, the track patterns (a necessary evil, perhaps) should be in the minds of the teachers and counselors and not in print to serve as symbols of prestige and distinction among the students.

In arriving at a course structure, the leaders in every secondary school must take into account a number of related factors:

1. *State requirements.* These may be found in legislation or in state department regulations. Some states have many specific items which must be included. These are usually such things as American history and citizenship, health instruction, and traffic safety. Other states may not require a school to offer certain subjects, but may require such subjects for high-school graduation.

2. *Accrediting organizations.* The standards evolved by groups like the North Central Association have a direct influence on course structure for high schools.

3. *Areas of training of the faculty.* This factor is related to the preceding one. Accrediting organizations define specifically the qualifications of teachers for offering certain courses. If a principal wishes to offer physics, but has no teacher with the pattern of training to meet specific requirements, he has to find other teachers or change his mind.

4. *Size of the school.* Small schools cannot offer a variety of separate subjects within the framework of our Carnegie-unit system. Two-or-three-teacher schools are definitely handicapped in their attempt to meet student differences through an expansion of course offerings. But a school of this size might reorganize around some kind of integrative core pattern. In fact, a two-teacher school might make the whole school day a core class involving both teachers and the entire student body.

5. *Local needs and circumstances.* Communities vary in their needs, particularly for certain types of vocational training. One Wisconsin city with many large paper mills offers a course in the chemistry of paper making. Some high schools offer not the stock languages (German, French, Latin, Spanish) but Polish, Swedish, and Italian. These offerings are made to meet the needs of large groups in the community. If these languages are taught as a means of helping these groups maintain their cultural heritages and thereby contribute to the richness and diversity of American life, such offerings can be justified. If the ancestral language is used as a means of withdrawal from the total community or of rejecting American democratic ideals, such offerings must be questioned.

6. *Purposes of education.* How should these influence course structure? This question is treated specifically in the following section.

The Problem of Relating Purposes to Pattern Choice

How can a statement of the purposes of education help a school faculty approach the question of curricular patterns? What difference do the purposes make in the decision to follow a pattern based on human knowledge or one based on social functions and human needs? In strict logic, a definition of the purposes of education in terms of mastering areas of human knowledge would call for a pattern of separate subjects or for broad fields. The decision whether to use separate subjects *or* broad fields would depend upon the efficiency of either organization in promoting the objectives. But that decision would be relatively minor to the major one of deciding to hold to the section-of-human-knowledge basis of organization.

But most statements of purposes developed in public schools do not stress the mastering of knowledge as an end in itself. They stress functional areas of human needs (see the seven cardinal principles) or human problems. Again from a logical standpoint, such statements of philosophy imply the use of some integrative core pattern for the curriculum, in both elementary and secondary schools. Such a complete adherence to logic is probably not possible in most public-school setups today. Tradition and custom are on the side of human-knowledge patterns. This fact should not lead to defeatism. After all, curricular patterns are only one phase of the total school program. It may be necessary to recognize that the organization within each subject or broad field may be consistent with the overall purposes, even though the pattern of organization is not. Likewise, we must examine carefully the relationship between overall school purposes and the other parts of the school program, such as student activities and community relationships. Teaching procedures also may be consistent or inconsistent with expressed purposes.

For the present it may even be fortunate that we cannot bring about 100 percent application of integrative core patterns. To reorganize curricular patterning too quickly may lead us to assume that the total job has been done. In that case we might even forget to examine teaching procedures, school life, and other important aspects of the total program. This may be sour grapes reasoning; but at least we don't need to feel that everything is lost because we cannot at once recast the overall structure of the classroom teaching phase of the all-school program.

In the preceding paragraphs we have been looking at the question "How do school purposes relate to the choice of curricular patterns?" It is possible to raise a counterquestion: "What differences, if any, do the distinctions between types of curricular patterns make in the achievement of school purposes?" There has been much discussion in curricular development programs of these distinctions, based on an implied assumption or hypothesis that they are crucial to the development of better teacher learning, better learning experiences, and better school environment. So far the validity of this assumption does not appear to have been clearly

demonstrated. Perhaps some of the energy spent in examining these issues in the past might better be employed in other and possibly more fruitful activities of curriculum development programs.

STUDENT ACTIVITIES IN THE ALL-SCHOOL PROGRAM

The purposes of the school are fulfilled not only in the course of study part of the program, but also in a number of other ways. One of the most important aspects of the all-school program is that which we have in the past called "extracurricular activities" and which currently goes by the name "cocurricular activities" or, more simply, "student activities."

What relationship can student activities bear to the overall purposes of the public school? Let us assume for purposes of analysis a statement of purposes which includes such broad areas as the development of democratic citizenship, the practice of democratic human relationships, vocational or occupational adjustment, mental health, and personality development.

A student activities program in a school might then be examined to see how its functions compare with all-school educational purposes.

1. *Democratic citizenship.* A good student activities program should supplement the citizenship education possibilities of the classroom by providing much opportunity for group planning and discussion. Some people object to teacher-pupil planning in the regular classroom program, but it would be difficult to find objections to such planning in the student activities aspect of the curriculum.

2. *Vocational or occupational adjustment.* Good vocational guidance depends upon exploration of a number of vocational possibilities. A varied student activities program helps open to many youth avenues of possible vocational exploration. This is true especially of school newspapers, dramatic activities, athletics, music, and handicrafts.

3. *Mental health and personality development.* A varied student activities program can help every student find something at which he can "be good" and gain some personal success. This helps the

student win participation, status, and belongingness in the school environment. In addition, participation in activities helps even the most shy and awkward child to gain a minimum of social know-how, essential to gaining acceptance by age mates.

Such purposes will be fostered by a student activities program which is student-planned with a minimum of faculty guidance; which is sufficiently varied to help every boy or girl find something he or she likes to do; and which is closely related to the concerns of everyday life.

The organization and administration of a student activities program involve a number of specific and detailed questions, all of which might be approached not only on the basis of their relation to the overall purposes of the school. Some of these questions may also serve as good leads into curricular discussion, as indicated in Chapter II. Here are a few of the specific questions and problems we encounter in student activities.

1. Who should be eligible to take part in student activities? Should eligibility be considered a reward for academic virtues? Should eligibility for activities be held out as motivation for academic study?

2. Should every student be required to participate in a minimum number of student activities? Should a limit be placed on maximum participation? How valuable are mechanical techniques, such as the point system, rewards, requirement of activities for graduation? Are we justified in putting such matters on an individual basis, to be left up to the student and his counselor?

3. Who should pay for student activities? The school board through the regular school funds? Or should each student pay for the equipment and materials used in his own activities?

4. Should student activities be regarded strictly as after-school? Or should they be integrated into the regular school day? How can this be done? If you have a student activity period, should it be scheduled for the same time every day, should it be staggered, or should it be set up as a floating period?

5. Should every activity have a teacher-adviser? Why or why not? Should such work be recognized as part of the teacher's load? Should every teacher be required to advise or sponsor at least one activity? What qualities does a teacher need to work successfully with activities?

6. How can the student activities phase of the curriculum be related to community needs or community service?

GUIDANCE IN THE ALL-SCHOOL PROGRAM

It has always been difficult to define "guidance." The term began as "vocational guidance," which had what many regarded as clear-cut limits and functions. Then the term "vocational guidance" was expanded to include other types—"educational guidance," "spiritual guidance," "personality guidance," and the like. The guidance program presumably was concerned with helping the students learn how to get along with people, to develop interests, to enjoy life, and with many other functions besides those of program making and vocational choice.

This expanded conception of guidance ran smack into the expanded conception of curriculum. On one hand, the functions of guidance looked more and more like the functions of education in general, while the curriculum people, getting out beyond the course of study, insisted that everything going on in school was curriculum. The conviction has grown steadily that guidance and curriculum are one and the same thing. Also, the tendency has developed to think of guidance as that aspect of curriculum in which teachers (counselors) deal directly with the problems and needs of individual students. Probably most teachers and administrators would agree with both foregoing statements.

But the actual practice in the schools is consistent with neither statement. We may say that curriculum and guidance have the same fundamental objectives and that guidance is an aspect of the total curriculum. Yet more and more, in practice, we set up special "counselors" who presumably guide while the teachers teach. This practice is justified by saying that the main business of the counselor is to lead the other teachers through in-service education to carry the guidance function. In many high schools, however, the overworked counselor is so busy handling routine cases, mostly disciplinary in character, that his faculty leadership function gets left out. This unfortunate separation of guidance and teaching seems even to be working its way into the elementary school. It often leads to the implicit definition of guidance as something which goes on in a counselor's office—especially if that counselor be surrounded by enough files, records, and other guidance paraphernalia.

The assumption that guidance is particularly concerned with in-

dividuals is contradicted by the anomalous term "group guidance." We even find group guidance classes. Much of the work of the home room was supposed to be of a group guidance character. In this case it becomes even more difficult to get hold of the distinctive feature of guidance. Some have tried to say that a regular class (curriculum!) is concerned with subjects or subject matter, while a group guidance class is concerned with pupils' needs and problems. This also appears to be a rather difficult distinction.

Those who object to the artificial separation of guidance from teaching have developed the slogan "every teacher a guidance teacher." This slogan is a long step in the right direction, but also demands examination. Any function which is scattered over all teachers may cease to be the business of any teacher. It seems desirable to have some specific definition of responsibility. We need also to recognize the fact that some teachers may be unsuitable, for one reason or another, for certain types of guidance functions and yet may be valuable for other aspects of the school program.

We need, then, some measures which will bring about a more functional relationship between guidance and teaching and which will make possible more decentralized competent help to the individual student.

In the secondary school, a double-period class (broad fields or core) provides a good administrative device for these purposes. A teacher with two double-period sections will have only about 80 students to know rather than 160 in a four-class schedule. These teachers can serve as counselors for the students in their core or broad fields classes. This system has the following advantages: (1) It spreads the guidance function out to many teachers, but not to all teachers. Only teachers particularly interested in or fitted for guidance serve as core or broad fields teachers. (2) It combines curriculum and guidance in the same teacher and the same class. The teacher who handles a problem on a general or group basis can approach that same problem with individual students on a specific basis. This does away with the confusion involved in the term "group guidance." (3) It gives the teacher relatively few students to counsel. In our larger high schools with a special-counselor setup, we often find as high as 1000 students per counselor. Under such conditions individual guidance becomes pretty diluted.

It should be pointed out that even under this setup, all teachers should help with certain phases of guidance. The core or broad fields teacher can help make this coöperation possible. The mathematics teacher, for example, should be called on to help with phases of vocational guidance involving mathematics. Similarly, a guidance director can then operate a real guidance in-service education program.

Where a double-period setup is not possible or feasible, a compromise may be put into effect. All students, for example, may take social studies. The social studies teachers then serve as counselors for the students in their own classes. To help these teachers carry this responsibility, administrators may set them up on a $3/5$ or $2/3$ teaching load. This is less desirable than the double-period setup, but it is also an easier transition step away from the traditional guidance-teaching separation.

A double-period core or broad fields setup need not be labeled as such. It may be spoken of merely as a period of history and a period of English. Nor need the periods be adjacent. The purposes of the device are to cut down the pupil-teacher ratio and to combine counseling with teaching; neither purpose is inconsistent with putting a class with one teacher into the second and sixth periods of the day instead of the second and third.

The counselor or teacher-counselor then has many duties in relation to the total curriculum. He helps the individual student select his classroom study program. In the core setup, the teacher-counselor helps the individual student select electives in the fields outside the core. He helps every student plan an activities program individually tailored to that student's needs. He helps every student see the possibilities of work experience and community service. He helps the individual student solve some of his problems of human relationships—with other students, with faculty, with parents, with friends. He uses administrators, parents, and other teachers to help him and his students in this process. In general, the guidance role of a teacher-counselor consists of helping individual students make important decisions concerning their use of school resources, their participation in the life of the school, and their relating of these factors to their life plans. Through these activities the teacher-counselor pulls together for the individual students the various strands involved in the total curriculum pattern.

WORK EXPERIENCE AS PART OF THE CURRICULUM

Many children and youth have worked part time along with their schooling. Except for issuing work permits, most schools have paid little attention to such work experience. More recently, school leaders have begun to consider the possibility of using work experience as part of the total educational program of the school. How, then, can we see this phase of the curriculum in relation to all-school purposes?

Work experience has been thought of as having value in vocational training for specific jobs, particularly in commercial work—retailing, office work, and the like. This view would restrict work experience to those who had made some definite vocational choice, plus those students who work because of economic need. But work experience can have definite value for vocational exploration and guidance as well as for specific job training. Counselors need to help students sample a variety of jobs in order to get a better basis for ultimate vocational choice. Work experience organized on this basis calls for the closest coöperation between the school and employers.

Furthermore, work experience should be viewed as having possible value for all students, apart from purely vocational goals. The value for all students lies in the opportunities it affords for gaining adult social and economic status. Many boys and girls probably leave high school simply because they do not want to be considered "school kids." Part-time work may help them satisfy their need for developing adult status and yet remain in school.

It is essential that the work experience be regarded by the school as a real part of the curriculum. This means that the school must recognize the work experience in its credit-for-graduation book-keeping system. Otherwise, in the minds of many teachers and students, the work experience phase of the curriculum will appear to be of minor importance in comparison with the formal instruction program.

COMMUNITY SERVICE AND COMMUNITY STUDY IN THE CURRICULUM

This phase of the curriculum resembles closely certain aspects of work experience. But work experience should always mean *paid*

work under conditions of regular employment. Community service should represent the work which students do individually and in groups as their contribution to total community life and welfare. This aspect of the curriculum becomes particularly important when our statements of all-school purposes emphasize community citizenship and participation.

Children and youth have carried out a tremendous variety of projects useful to their communities. The thrilling record of many such projects is found in a number of publications.⁸ In many communities of our land, children and youth have worked on housing, health, recreation, and beautification projects. They have cleared lots for baseball diamonds, planted flower gardens, conducted housing surveys, helped determine sanitation needs, proposed traffic ordinances, and conducted discussion groups.

It is especially important that community service and community study be developed coöperatively with lay people. For a school to go off by itself on a series of such activities may promote nothing but widespread public misunderstanding and resentment. But when such projects are developed in a total setting of school-community coöperation, there is little danger of the kickback which some school administrators fear may take place. Furthermore, the coöperation of community agencies other than the school—such as the police and fire departments, the water department, the recreation department, the churches—helps make the learning experience for children more real. We must remember that the purpose of these community projects is to provide children and youth with opportunities for a learning experience. This learning experience becomes more meaningful and significant as more and more community resources are involved in the total undertaking. Community projects should never become another form of school busy work.

The question we must all face and answer is this: Do we regard community service and study activities as a pleasant occasional stunt, or, in the light of educational purposes on which we agree, do we consider it a “must” phase of the school curriculum? If we decide the former, we might well save our time and energy and skip

⁸ Particularly in Paul Hanna (editor), *Youth Serves the Community* (D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1936), and in the Ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, *The Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies* (Cambridge, Mass., 1938).

the whole thing. If we decide the latter, we will move at once to consider how this kind of activity may be carried on to realize its fullest educational values.

HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS AS PART OF THE CURRICULUM

Some will object to including human relationships as part of the curriculum on the ground that this action expands curriculum to include everything. Others are fearful that human relationships are so vague and intangible that they cannot be adequately considered. Both these difficulties are real. Yet there is certainly nothing more vital in the learning experience of the child in school than the way he lives and gets along with administrators, teachers, and fellow students. Waller established the point that every school is a society in itself, a society capable of development along democratic or totalitarian lines.⁹ So, if we wish to consider all the real things in the learning environment of the school, we are compelled to include the human relationships pattern as part of the curriculum.

Human relationships assume particular importance in two widely accepted areas of school purposes—democratic citizenship and mental health. Most statements of educational purposes include some reference to both these items, and many statements indicate that they are of crucial importance. Problems in the area of human relationships, therefore, should be examined in relation to these two important curricular objectives of the all-school program.

The Life of the School

The life of the school is the sum total of many personal and official relationships. In this life the individual student must find belongingness, participation, status, and security, so that he may build mental health and effective personality.

One of the most critical problems for the student is that of moving to a new school during the school year. What will the human relationships phase of the curriculum provide for the new arrival? Will he be received and treated as a human personality worthy of respect and consideration? Or will he be regarded as an administrative

⁹ Willard Waller, *The Sociology of Teaching* (John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1932).

nuisance upsetting the well-oiled routine machinery of the school? Will he get a chance to learn new ways gradually, or will students and teachers remind him brusquely, "We don't do things that way at Blank High School!" Will the counselor take time to explore his needs and interests as a basis for a program, or will he simply stick the new student into a set of subjects to get him on the assembly line? Will the teachers remind him of all the work he has missed and put pressure on him to catch up?

It isn't easy for a school to do the right thing with new pupils. Overburdened administrators, counselors, and teachers certainly may be excused for becoming impatient with any situation out of the regular routine. And yet the "right things," to the extent that we know them, are absolutely essential to the mental health development of children. Here is one area where the total resources of the school may be mobilized. How can we help the students already in our schools to become sensitive to the problems of transfer students? How can the students themselves set up some kind of approach in which they can take a major share of the responsibility? This is one of the most immediately critical challenges in the all-school life phase of human relationships.

Another function of the all-school program should be that of helping children and youth identify themselves with the school as a whole, to develop a sense of belongingness. Most schools have done pretty well with certain phases of the problem. School rituals, yells, rallies, songs, and the like all help to build that important "we-ness" spirit among the youth in the school. Here is probably one of the most important contributions of interscholastic athletics. The degree of unity which is temporarily achieved by student bodies at football and basketball games probably represents a high point on this matter. But we still face the task of finding other ways of establishing "we-ness" and building emotional identification with the school on the part of the individual student.

Discipline

A school which professes democratic citizenship as an objective of education should be a living society exemplifying as much as possible the essential characteristics of democratic group life. One of these is self-discipline and social responsibility. Difficult as it is,

the administration and faculty must somehow, in the midst of perplexing conduct situations, build a school spirit based on these democratic characteristics. And in doing so, they must avoid the error of assuming that the transplanting of adult political techniques to the school will of itself solve the problem.

One approach is to build up school conduct positively, rather than through negative rules and prohibitions. The existence of a large number of detailed "don'ts" is always a temptation to the human personality. Having these "don'ts" come from a student legislature rather than from the principal's office helps some, but not much. The students of the Abraham Lincoln High School of San Jose, California, have achieved a high level of social responsibility on the basis of one rule only—"do right." This is the only rule from the office. The students have gone on to make a few additional regulations, but not many. In this school continual emphasis is placed on the student's developing his own personal responsibility and self-discipline patterns. Of course, the administration and faculty had the advantage of starting a new school only a few years back. To move from a highly regimented situation in an old school to this pattern too quickly might upset everything. But move we must, be it ever so slowly, if we mean what we say in our school objectives about democratic citizenship.

We should question seriously the use of students as enforcement and judicial officials. In the elementary school there is a clearly recognized need for student traffic patrol officers on the streets. For the most part this system has functioned effectively. But what about the use of student monitors in elementary schools to supervise corridor behavior? What does this do to student-student relationships? The use of student courts to prescribe penalties also needs examination. If we assume that every child with a behavior problem is a child in need of some kind of help, it becomes our obligation to provide that help through mature, experienced adults who understand psychology and mental health. To turn behavior problems over to youth who are themselves in the process of self-adjustment and who certainly have had neither training nor experience in psychology and mental health seems to negate the philosophy of education advocated in most schools. We certainly don't have the answers on these matters, but if we are seriously concerned with mental health

and citizenship objectives, we must critically examine some of our most widely accepted practices affecting student-student human relationships.

Administrator-Teacher-Student Relationships

Democracy implies mutual respect for personality. Vague as this term may seem, it certainly involves such factors as considerateness, courtesy, regard for the feelings of others. The teacher who regards himself as a king or dictator in his classroom and regards his students as his subjects certainly will not respect their personalities unless it suits his convenience at the moment. If it does not, he will use sarcasm, ridicule, and invective. He will develop a set of court favorites and a large majority of frustrated and discontented opponents. It is in such situations that open rebellions may occur, culminating in a showdown ending in the principal's office.

On the other hand, pupils must respect teachers' personalities too. In a system of good democratic relationships, there may be much vigorous disagreement among pupils with the teacher's point of view. Pupils will feel free to express their disagreement without fear of reprisals. But they will not indulge in insolent or impertinent behavior. They will regard the teacher as a democratic leader entitled to the same courtesy and respect as any other human being.

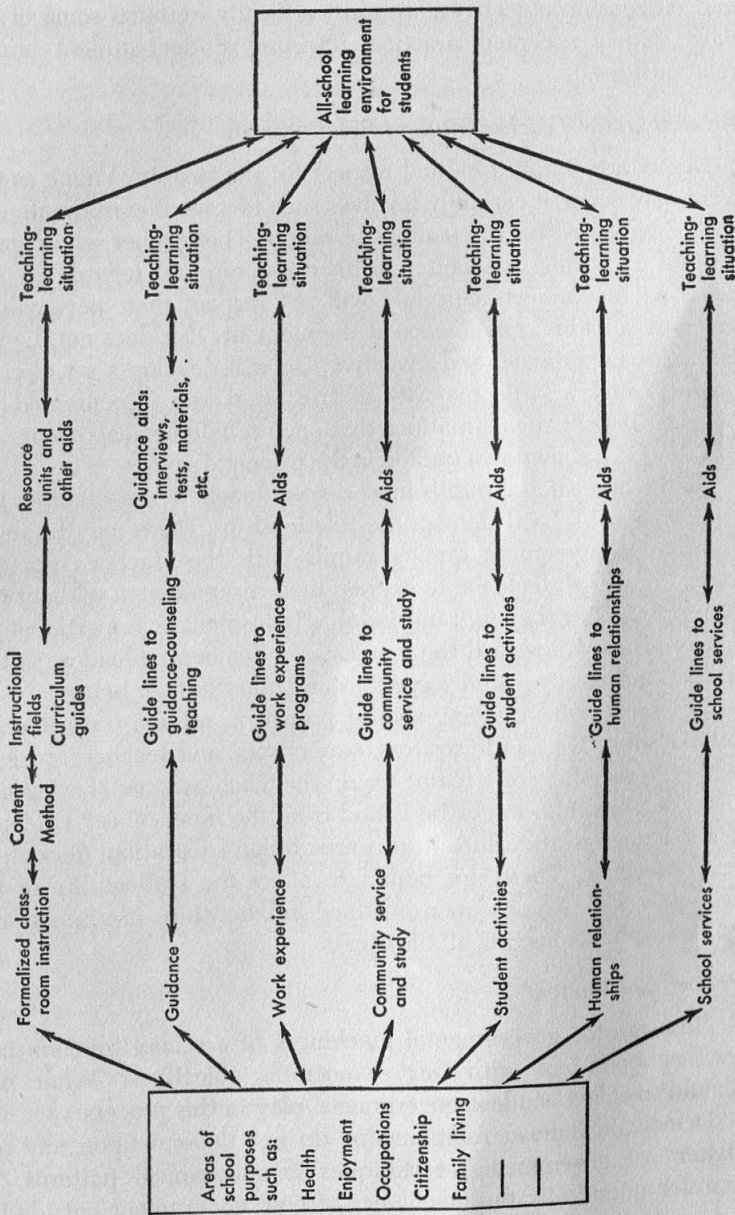
The same point of view should prevail in administrator-teacher relationships. Do administrators, supervisors, and teachers work together as members of a team? Or do the teachers wonder what new edict or ultimatum might be issued from the inner office? Undemocratic human relationships in this area breed frustration, discontent, and insecurity. These are bound to affect the student life of the school as well. No one area of human relationships in a school can go bad without affecting all the others.

School Government

How can the governmental machinery of a school function in a manner consistent with our democratic objectives? What part should so-called "student government" play in this process?

Democratic human relationships do not depend upon any one pattern of governmental techniques or mechanical patterns. To transfer uncritically the mechanics of civil government outside the

THE ALL-SCHOOL PROGRAM



school into the area of school living may do more harm than good. It has already been suggested that student courts may be undesirable. Their existence in many places represents probably an attempt to copy or imitate the legislative, executive, and judicial mechanisms of civil government generally.

The legislative function in certain areas may well be assumed by students. This function is of particular value since it involves the participation of many children and youth in the school. Home room representatives take back to their own groups for discussion some of the most important and critical school problems. This leads to identification of almost every student with the major problems and concerns of the school as a whole. It fosters belongingness and participation and affords to some students unusual opportunity for legitimate status. It tends to build up school spirit and the we-group feeling.

It must be recognized, however, that the school administration is acting for the board of education, the duly constituted representatives of the people. By necessity the administration must hold the power of veto. A wise principal will, of course, exercise this veto most sparingly and will certainly refrain from attempting to dominate the student body council and to influence their decisions.

There are a number of different functions to be carried out in the executive or administrative area of school government. It has been suggested that it may be unwise to put students into positions of authority as hall monitors, corridor guards, and the like. But there are many other managerial or administrative tasks which students may well perform. Harl Douglass provides an excellent list of such duties and responsibilities.¹⁰ It includes, for example, handling seating arrangements at assemblies, checking books in and out of the school library, assigning lock keys, managing lost-and-found bureaus, operating book exchanges, and developing plans for fire drills.

SUMMARY

In this chapter an attempt has been made to suggest the crisscross relationships between areas of educational purposes, on the one hand, and areas of the curriculum, on the other. We may start with

¹⁰ Harl Douglass, *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools* (Ginn & Co., Boston, 1945), pp. 288-289.

an area of educational purpose such as democratic citizenship and proceed to use this as a basis for analyzing the course of study, the student activities program, work experience, guidance, community service, and human relationships. On the other hand, we may start with some one area of the curriculum, such as student activities, and examine it in the light of widely accepted school purposes. It is only through continuous reëxamination and reëvaluation of both sides of this pattern that we shall succeed in bringing the curriculum into closer harmony with professed educational purposes. (See page 107 for an attempt to portray these relationships in chart form.)

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Make a collection of definitions of "general education." These may be secured from professional texts on curriculum development and from course of study bulletins, particularly in higher education. See whether you can identify enough similarities and/or differences among them to warrant putting these definitions into categories or classifications. Which definitions, or types of definition, if any, appear to have the greatest value and significance to you? For what purposes? What in your opinion have been the major values, or lack of values, of the general education discussion in curriculum development? To what extent do you agree or disagree with the point of view in this chapter? Why?
2. Take some important area of educational purposes other than the ones analyzed in this chapter. Formulate lists of questions which might be used as a guide in studying curricular practices in relation to these areas. Try to include questions in at least several important aspects of the all-school program—formalized classroom instruction, guidance, student activities, work experience, community service and study, human relationships, and school services.
3. Make a collection of representative courses of study in the elementary and/or secondary school. Attempt to classify these materials under the conventional headings of curriculum types. What important similarities or differences do you find? What problems or difficulties do you encounter? What possibilities are there of making such a classification? What generalizations appear to emerge from this analysis? What are some of the possible values of these generalizations? Where do you stand with reference to the hypothesis that curricular type becomes an important factor in actual learning experience? Why?

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4. Do you think the term "core curriculum" has practical value in curricular discussions today? If so, for what purpose? How would you define it? If not, what other term or terms would you suggest? For what purpose?
5. Gather together several scope-and-sequence patterns from courses of study in the library's curriculum center. What, in your judgment, is supposed to be the function of such patterns? How would you appraise the effectiveness of the selected patterns in carrying out these functions? Why?
6. Prepare the outline of a talk you might make at a community group on the values of any of the following features of the school program: guidance, work experience, student activities, community service. Point your values toward areas of school objectives you consider important. Outline also the questions and problems you would propose for study or discussion by this group.

»» IV ««

CURRICULUM GUIDES FOR VARIOUS PARTS OF THE ALL-SCHOOL PROGRAM

Teachers and administrators in most school systems feel a need for guide lines to help carry out the various phases of the all-school programs. This is true not only of the classroom instruction phase of the program, but also of guidance, work experience, student activities, community relationships, and school services. Often these guide lines are presented in printed or mimeographed bulletins.

In this chapter we shall examine four types of such curriculum guides:

1. Those organized for subject fields, or areas such as social studies, language arts, and mathematics.
2. Those organized for the common learnings, usually expressed in core or general education classes or programs.
3. Those organized for important single topics, problems, or themes which cut across many phases of the all-school program, such as aviation and conservation.
4. Those which deal with phases of the program other than classroom instruction, such as guidance and student activities.

CURRICULUM GUIDES IN THE INSTRUCTIONAL FIELDS

Why Should They Be Prepared?

In the opening paragraphs of this book we noted the conflict between those who believe in putting materials on paper and those who react against doing so. Probably there is no point on which this conflict is sharper than on this matter of curriculum guides in the instructional fields—language arts, mathematics, social studies, and the like. Curriculum students who will consent to materials on paper for philosophy and objectives often will not go along with mate-

rials on paper for mathematics, language arts, and so on. Part of this objection stems from an aversion to the existence of these subjects in the school program. It should be carefully noted, therefore, that curriculum guides may be prepared for a core curriculum as well as for the separate subject fields.

The most important reason for preparing guides in the instructional fields is that these guides, when well prepared, became instruments for the improvement of education along the lines of desired objectives. We may say that international understanding is an objective of education, but we must go beyond this and try to make specific provisions for doing something about it. One way is to include considerable emphasis on international understanding in the social studies field, in the teaching of science, and in the student activities program. To leave international understanding up to education in general is not enough. In some part of the school program, some people—teachers and students—must at some times and in some places give attention to this area of need. Good curriculum guides in the various phases of the school program can here make an important contribution.

Another important reason for preparing curriculum guides in the subject fields is that this kind of activity contributes greatly to the morale of many participants in curriculum development. Some teachers and administrators view this as the heart of the curriculum development process. They will identify themselves with a curriculum program only if it “gets down to earth.” Nor should this be thought of as merely a concession to weakness. Definite guide lines in the subject fields make it possible for maximum value to be achieved through the teaching of these subjects. They provide the greatest possible interrelationship between the subject fields and the major objectives which constitute the function of the school.

Many teachers will go somewhere to get help on structure and organization for the courses they teach. When they do not have a curriculum guide in their subject field, they turn to any outline they can get. Such outlines may be good or bad, but they will not necessarily be related to the educational philosophy worked out cooperatively in the local school system or in a state framework. The curriculum guide in the subject field, then, helps the teacher approach the planning of his course in relation to the larger goals of education.

By Whom and How Would They Be Used?

In the first place, they would be used as suggested outlines to guide the development of a program in a local school system or a local school. A state outline, for instance, in social studies would be studied as a basis for local preparation of such materials in the various school systems of the state. A city-wide or county-wide outline in that field would be used by teachers in building the program for their school. Ultimately the decision as to the program in social studies (or science, or language arts, or any subject field) should rest with the local group of teachers in that field, assuming that the place of that field has been worked out by the entire faculty for the all-school program. But there is no need for the teachers in every local school to go through in detail all phases of that task. That is why they should have some state-wide, county-wide, or city-wide outline to use as a point of departure, modification, or criticism.

It should also be clear that for the most part these guides will be used by teachers, and not by adult lay people, nor to any great extent by children and youth in school. They are professional, technical materials dealing with those aspects of the school program in which teachers, as members of a profession, are supposed to have unique competence and responsibilities. Apart from the responsibility of using good, clear English, the makers of such guides need not strain to avoid the use of professional terms, jargon, gobbledygook, or what have you!

In the second place, a guide line prepared for use in a local school would be used by individual teachers in their preplanning for the teaching of classes in that field. A teacher of eighth-grade American history, for example, would use such an outline as a basic checklist against which to refer the outcomes of the pupil-teacher planning process in his groups.

A third function of an outline in a subject field is to stimulate and guide resource unit writing. The nature and function of resource units are taken up in detail in Chapter V and will therefore not be presented at this point. But a resource unit must have reference to some basic framework. It is likely that resource unit writing will be better motivated if there is some discernible structure in terms of which teachers can see the interrelationship of various resource units.

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Curriculum guide outlines also serve as morale builders for new teachers in the system. New teachers, particularly inexperienced teachers, want to fit themselves into a going concern. Usually they do not regard it as a kindness to be told to do anything they want. Nor do they want something imposed on them by authority. But they usually appreciate some outline in which they can get themselves organized and begin to do a creative job of teaching.

It is the responsibility of local curriculum leaders to see that materials of this kind are called to the attention of teachers and made available for use. Careless or haphazard leadership in the city or county will sabotage any efforts on the part of state-wide curriculum planning groups. Similarly, such leadership in the local school building will defeat the efforts of city-wide or county-wide groups. All the way along the line, superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers in leadership roles must help teachers make maximum effective use of guides and outlines in the instructional fields.

What Should Go into a Curriculum Outline in a Subject Field?

Much of the criticism of curriculum outlines in the instructional fields has centered about the fact that they usually consist of something called a "subject matter outline" only. Some outlines in history have stressed the presentation of chronological epochs and the listing of dates, campaigns, presidents, dynasties, and the like. Some geography outlines have listed by continent and country the chief imports and exports, climate, principal cities, ports, rivers, and provinces. Some science outlines have organized details under such headings as air, water, soil, or under species of plants and animals.

Philosophy and Objectives: Place of the Subject Field in the Total School Program. But if we decry this type of curriculum outline, what kind, then, shall we prepare? We find our clue in the purpose of the curriculum outline itself. It is designed, in part at least, to provide the inner connection between the all-school philosophy and all-school objectives, on the one hand, and the activities of classroom teachers in planning and teaching, on the other. Certainly essential to any good curriculum outline is a section clarifying the relation of that particular subject field to the all-school program and the all-school philosophy and objectives.

The following series of questions was prepared in the Wisconsin

Cooperative Educational Planning Program as an aid to state-wide committees in the subject fields.

Point of view on the role of the field in the total school program. What is the importance of this field (social studies, science, etc.) in the total pattern of general education? To the development of what major understandings, attitudes, and skills of children and youth does this field contribute? What is the importance of this field in special education to meet needs and interests not common to children and youth in general? What are the major issues involved in the consideration of the role of this field in the total school program?¹

This section of the curriculum outline provides the place where we may go into considerable detail with regard to objectives. It was pointed out previously that all-school objectives should be stated in broad terms and that lists should be kept brief. The translation of these all-school objectives into specific behaviors then becomes a function of the curriculum outline in the subject field. The closer we get to the local school situation, the more detailed and specific these statements of objectives may become.

For example, here is a statement of purposes and point of view, from a state-wide committee, designed to serve as a guide to city, county, and school planning groups:

Purposes of the Social Studies Program

The social studies program should foster growth of children and youth in the following understandings, attitudes, and skills.

1. Understandings.

- a. Of the democratic faith and its meaning for human welfare and happiness.
- b. Of the application of democratic faith in the development of the American heritage.
- c. Of the forces which have made for world inter-dependence and the need for world organization.
- d. Of the historical and geographic reasons for the behavior of regional and national groups.
- e. Of the local community and its problems, and the need for wide participation in community concerns by all citizens.
- f. Of the significance in social problems of the mental health and emotional balance of individual human beings.

¹ "Curriculum Committees Begin Work," *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, November, 1945.

2. Attitudes

- a. That all human beings regardless of race, national origin, color, or any matter over which they have no control are entitled to equal rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.
- b. That we concern ourselves with achieving and improving human welfare and democratic liberties everywhere in the world.
- c. That all citizens should participate actively in working toward the solution of community problems for social betterment.
- d. That reflective group thinking can serve as an approach toward the solution of social problems. Such thinking on a group basis is necessary to bring about an informed and enlightened public opinion.

3. Skills and/or abilities.

- a. The ability to take part in group discussion.
- b. The ability to take part in group planning.
- c. The ability to think reflectively on social problems.
- d. The ability to search out and use valid and adequate sources of information.
- e. The ability to evaluate ideas and opinions on controversial problems offered by and through radio, movies, newspapers, periodicals, books, etc., in a manner which will contribute to the general welfare.²

This bulletin includes also in its statement of philosophy and principles the following observations regarding teaching procedures:

No clarification of purposes and no change in sequence will result in desired improvement unless something is done to improve classroom procedures now generally in use.

Classroom practices of great promise include:

1. The problem approach so that boys and girls will develop habits of critical thinking.
2. Teacher-pupil planning so that children will learn to work cooperatively, some as leaders and some as followers, in the study of common problems. Children should have the opportunity to initiate, experiment, and explore—but they must have leadership.
3. Variety of experiences in keeping with pupil interest, ability, and the attainment of objectives so that children develop:
 - a. Skill in selection of problems.

² Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, Bulletin No. 14, *Scope and Sequence of the Social Studies Program* (State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, November, 1947), pp. 6-9.

- b. Skill in using various sources of information.
- c. Skill in organization and interpretation.
- d. Skill in using many media of expression.³

In the following materials, taken from a county curriculum guide in the social studies, we find more specific detail. This particular section deals with understandings for the fourth grade, although the foreword points out that these "should be *progressively developed* along with the pupils' educational growth" and "will not change materially from year to year."

1. Historical backgrounds of Santa Clara County and California.
2. Economic contributions of Santa Clara County and California to our nation and the world.
3. How other nations have contributed to the development of the United States.
4. The part California has played in the expansion and growth of our nation.
5. The significance of democratic principles and the democratic way of life as shown by institutions, laws, and customs in Santa Clara County and in California.
6. The significance of the growth of religious tolerance in the United States, as typified in Santa Clara County and other California communities.
7. The effects of modern transportation and communication upon the interdependence of communities and nations.
8. The relationship of Santa Clara County, and the state of California, to the Western hemisphere and the Pacific basin.
9. Contributions of Santa Clara County, and of California, to art, music, literature, architecture.
10. The wealth of our natural resources, their value to mankind, and the necessity for their intelligent conservation.
11. The broader relationships between local, county, state, and national governments.
12. The fundamental dependence of agricultural types of production upon conditions of climate, rainfall, etc.⁴

Let us switch over now to the field of language arts and notice the following materials, in the same county guide, dealing with reading and literature, grades one to eight:

³ *Ibid.*

⁴ *Tentative Curriculum, Elementary Grades, Santa Clara County* (Santa Clara County, California, 1939), Vol. I, p. 72. (Mimeographed.)

Aims

1. To stimulate a keen interest in reading and a desire to read independently.
2. To develop a love for good literature.
3. To develop high ideals of character through reading.
4. To develop economical and effective reading habits and skills.
5. To instill in the child an aggressive interest in reading.
6. To develop the ability to interpret and evaluate reading materials according to individual ability.⁵

The guide continues by developing further statements of objectives in relation to the following types of reading: oral reading, silent reading, work-type reading, related or research reading, group interpretative reading, and recreatory reading. Further specific aims for group interpretative reading are stated as follows:

1. To develop poise.
2. To compare experiences and impressions.
3. To think and recall matters of interest to the group.
4. To learn to listen.
5. To learn to share conversation time.
6. To enjoy entertaining conversational companionship.
7. To enrich the personality through self expression.
8. To learn habits of courtesy in group discussions.⁶

Still more specifically (and technically) the guide goes on to state objectives for the preprimer stage in beginning reading:

1. To stimulate interest in informal reading activities and in looking at pictures in books and independently.
2. To cultivate a thoughtful reading attitude.
3. To develop a small sight vocabulary.
4. To develop good habits of recognizing and interpreting simple sentence units in oral and silent reading.
5. To develop ability to follow directions for seat work.
6. To cultivate social attitudes desirable in a reading group.
7. To develop proper habits in the care and use of books.⁷

Sometimes the listing of specific objectives is preceded by an expository statement of viewpoint, such as is found in the social studies bulletin of one city-wide curriculum program:

⁵ *Ibid.*, introductory page.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

The people of the United States believe that a high level of education is basic to their national future. Throughout our history our citizens have had great faith in what the schools can do for the individual. We have relied on our system of public instruction to build the foundation for a prosperous and enduring country and to provide individual opportunities for our young people.

In the secondary school, the chief function is to prepare young people for effective living in American Democracy.

Social studies courses promote effective living because they give to the student the basic information and the experiences necessary for the formulation of the values, attitudes, habits, and skills basic to good citizenship.

With the increasing realization that social processes have not kept pace with technological and mechanical advances, it becomes evident that social studies courses must receive great emphasis in our high schools. Now, because of local, state, national, and international problems, the social studies teacher must be alert to the challenge which goes with instruction in these basic fields, keeping in mind that the goal is to direct students toward civic competence rather than to have them become skilled historians, geographers, or economists.

A citizen cannot understand his own home locality if he does not know how his community has been affected by and in turn has affected the history of his country and world. Residents of Duluth must realize that few cities of its size are situated so as to exert comparable national and international influence. Here the social studies teacher has a truly unique opportunity to teach effectively. The role of Duluth and the Mesabi Range in winning World War II makes an excellent beginning for branching out from the community to the state, nation, and the world.⁸

The foregoing statement is noteworthy in two respects. It ties the philosophy involved in social studies directly back to the all-school philosophy, the function of the school. It also makes direct use of the unique local factors involved in framing a point of view for the social studies.

The following interesting statement of principles and functions is taken from a brief state-wide bulletin dealing with modern languages:

Function of Modern Languages in General Education

The days of political, economic, and linguistic isolationism are gone forever. The United States cannot successfully assume world leadership

⁸ Social Studies Curriculum Committee of Duluth, *The Social Studies Program of the Junior and Senior High Schools of Duluth* (Board of Education, Duluth, September, 1946), p. 5.

without an informed public opinion that knows and cares about the people and nations beyond our borders. One of the greatest responsibilities that face our schools today is to prepare an intelligent citizenry for the ONE WORLD that is already in existence. Because we believe that modern languages have a unique contribution to make in this area, we feel that their study should be encouraged and expanded.

We call your attention to the following four points:

- A. Through daily, intimate, intensive contact with a foreign way of life, modern languages are peculiarly qualified to give these basic understandings. Although these understandings are increased by continued study of the language, they are not dependent upon linguistic proficiency and may be obtained through even a relatively brief contact and incomplete mastery of the language.
- B. Comparison with a foreign civilization gives a better perspective of our own and helps to prepare for citizenship in ONE WORLD. Through the sympathetic understanding of *one* foreign civilization that comes from the study of a foreign language, the students gain some insight into our indebtedness to all the nations of the world in our language, literature, music, art, and folk-ways, and thus acquire a tolerance for and an appreciation of the minority groups in our own country. Vicarious travel, as it may be experienced in language classes, gives the students vital experiences which contribute to the building of desirable attitudes of international understanding, and good will. These experiences might include the use of films, records, radio, talks by native speakers, songs, foreign correspondence, dramatizations, presentation of assembly programs, preparation of foreign foods, trips to the historical museum, to foreign restaurants or to foreign communities, tracing of foreign influence in the community, state, or nation.
- C. The necessity for clear enunciation, attention to details in writing, careful choice of words, analysis of meanings, study of the function of grammatical forms, all contribute to the pupils' use of language as a means of effective communication.
- D. Ability to use a modern language as a tool, in its contribution to the pleasure and satisfaction of the learner is on a par with any other subject in the curriculum.⁹

It is particularly important to keep in mind that a statement of philosophy and objectives for social studies or any other subject field is a particularization and application of all-school philosophy

⁹ Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, *Progress Report of the Modern Language Curriculum Committee* (State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, May 1, 1946), p. 1.

and objectives. Any committee preparing such a statement should at all times use the general philosophy and objectives as a check list. Otherwise some of the most important contributions or functions of the subject field may be overlooked. It would be all too easy, for example, for a social studies committee to overlook entirely the contributions of their subject field in such an important area of the all-school program as health.

Scope and Sequence: Themes or Emphases for the Various Developmental Levels. There is nothing mystical and should be nothing awe-inspiring about the term "scope and sequence." "Scope" refers simply to the total breadth of the curriculum in a subject field. It includes the important areas or divisions of the subject. It may be defined in broad, general terms or in detailed, specific terms. "Sequence" takes up the question of the placement of curriculum materials from the time standpoint. Should the community be studied in eighth- or ninth-grade social studies? When should flowering plants be studied in the science program? These are simple, everyday questions of sequence faced in every curriculum program. Scope and sequence, then, may be spoken of as the "what and when" of the curriculum—taken either as a whole or in the various subject fields. It is particularly important that scope and sequence statements be as consistent as possible with the philosophy expressed in the school purposes.

There are several schools of thought on the matter of how scope and sequence should be outlined. One group holds that the coverage of particular bits of content is of such importance that the scope and sequence should take the form of detailed prescription on every grade level. They would insist, for instance, that sixth-grade social studies cover the products, principal cities and rivers, and the like of particular countries, such as Spain, Italy, Portugal, France. This point of view is expressed much more frequently in curriculum committees dealing with actual situations than it is by theorists writing articles for publication. One argument cited in favor of this approach to sequence in a subject field is the high degree of pupil mobility. The proponents of this point of view claim that with so many children moving about from one school to another it is particularly important to insist on specific, detailed outlines.

Another group takes a directly opposite stand. They claim that

any stated sequence is a violation of what we know about child growth and development—that every child matures at his own rate and therefore that every group of children is a unique situation. They would extend the scope of pupil-teacher planning to the selection of areas to be studied.

As is usually the case, most curriculum workers prefer to find some kind of middle-of-the-road stand. They feel that such statements are necessary, but they believed that the statements should be flexible enough to permit a good deal of pupil-teacher planning. One reason given is that such statements help avoid undesirable duplication. Many teachers, we are told, would have unit after unit on Indians in the elementary school. Children would repeat the same units or materials or experiences in grade after grade. Another reason given is that a stated sequence prevents the omission of important areas. Without a sequence, it is asked, how could we insure that a group of children passing from one teacher to another through the elementary school would have “essential” experiences related to world peace and international understanding, or any other important problem area?

It can also be argued that a scope and sequence statement assists the teacher in making the connection between his own class-work and the philosophy and objectives of the school. The statement of scope and sequence makes explicit what many teachers probably would keep in mind anyway. It serves, then, as a helpful guide to all teachers and perhaps on occasion as a necessary prop to the occasional teacher who would not function effectively without it.

It is particularly important, therefore, that any committee making a statement on sequence in a subject field bulletin make clear its own point of view concerning the use of such a statement. The following paragraphs are an excellent example of providing a good setting for the statement of sequence which follows:

Any justifiable sequence is an order of development in harmony with the continued expansion of the abilities and powers of youth, leading to a working comprehension of the social conditions of living. Sequence is, therefore, related both to an orderly development of the individual and to an understanding of the major issues and problems of social life. The purpose of the sequence is to guide teachers on each successive level in selecting with pupils a pattern of experiences which will provide pupils

with cumulative understandings and skills necessary to develop constantly increasing insight into the problems of life.

There can be no sequence that can possibly meet every situation and fit every school. But every school can well profit by carefully considering the sequence that will best fit its particular situation.

If nothing more results than the mere consideration of a possible sequence, better continuity will be approached, glaring gaps will tend to disappear and needless duplication may be uncovered. In addition, if thinking is done along the sequence lines, accepted objectives and goals will more readily influence classroom situations and educational experiences. . . .

The committee urges upon all Social Studies teachers the need for planning and sequence considerations. We do not propose to offer an inflexible sequence that almost anyone could tear apart. What we offer should serve as a guide to the cooperative planning and thinking that should take place in any situation. Once the possibilities of a sequence are carefully considered in a local situation, all concerned should be able to justify more effectively the role of the Social Studies and any course in particular. If the points of view suggested are carefully thought through, they should serve as guide lines in the planning activity.¹⁰

This foreword is obviously designed not only to assure teachers that freedom in planning is to be preserved, but to insist upon discriminating and flexible use of the sequence to be presented. It would displease the makers of this statement if administrators and teachers simply followed the proposed sequence blindly and without criticisms or modification. This point of view is particularly appropriate in the case of a state-wide committee (such as this one) which is attempting to stimulate and inspire local planning rather than to discourage or deaden local initiative.

Here are the grade-level themes which are suggested in the state program just referred to:

- K. Getting acquainted with school living.
- 1-3. Home, neighborhood, community.
- 4. How kinds of communities developed: Wisconsin-World.
- 5-7. Understanding our world neighbors: American and world geography and history.

¹⁰ Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, Bulletin No. 14, *Scope and Sequence of the Social Studies Program* (State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, November, 1947), pp. 9-10.

8. Community problems *or* building and maintaining our country: U.S. history.
- 9-10. The world and its people: a two-year combined course in world history and world geography *or* geographical world patterns and community problems in grade 9 and world history in grade 10.
11. America's industrial growth and her place in the family of nations: U.S. history.
12. Knowing ourselves and understanding human relationships: problems course.¹¹

These themes are stated very broadly, and it is interesting to notice the combinations of grades one to three, five to seven, and nine and ten under single themes. Advocates of broad and flexible sequence statements naturally favor including as many grade levels under each heading as possible, as this leaves even more room for pupil-teacher planning and local modification. In fact, such combinations may actually be necessary in stating guide lines for rural schools where several grades are combined under one teacher. Such combinations also reduce the number of decisions which have to be made on somewhat arbitrary bases. For example, if the committee had decided to state separate themes for grades five, six, and seven in the foregoing outline, the drawing of grade level lines would have become even more a matter of arbitrary placement than the decision to allocate the total area to the three grades combined. This particular committee, as a matter of fact, did make such divisions within the broad theme of "understanding our world neighbors" in order to meet demands from schools who wanted such allocations made. They designated "United States and Canada" for the fifth grade, "Europe and Asia" for the sixth, and "Latin America, Africa, Australia, and the Pacific Islands" for the seventh. It is difficult to see the validity of these distinctions; but it may be necessary at times to make them as contributions to the morale of the participants in the program.

It is possible also to criticize statements of sequence made in terms of grades. But this criticism, while possible, is hardly fair and tends to become specious. Schools are organized by grades, and to disguise this fact by using such terms as "developmental levels" and "maturity levels" doesn't change the situation.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, headings from pp. 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 21, 22, 23, 27, 29, 38, 44, 50, 52.

The following materials are taken from a county-wide bulletin on the social studies. This sequence outline is divided into three sections, one for the primary grades (1, 2, 3), one for the intermediate (4, 5, 6), and one for the upper elementary (7, 8). The point of view concerning flexibility of usage is stated as follows:

It is not the intent of the cabinet and the committees to lay down a lock-step program for all teachers to follow. On the contrary this course of study calls for the fullest and freest expression of the individual teacher's initiative. In fact there is but one essential requirement which applies to every teacher: the basic theory of the course of study must be understood and followed.¹²

This basic theory is defined elsewhere in the guide as follows:

The basic theory of the Santa Clara County course of study requires that the child's learning experiences in all fields shall be made actively operative in the generalized activities provided for under the program of social activities and studies. This basic theory is of paramount importance, and the teacher should keep it constantly in mind. It should be a fundamental part of every day's teaching plan.¹³

The basic themes, or "centers of interest," are stated as follows:

- Grade one. Living at home and at school.
- Grade two. Living in the community.
- Grade three. Living in other world communities.
- Grade four. Santa Clara County and California.
- Grade five. United States and Western Hemisphere.
- Grade six. Europe and Asia; Africa, Australia, and the Pacific Islands.
- Grade seven. America's Progress in Civilization.
- Grade eight. America and the New Frontier.¹⁴

Sometimes sequence is stated simply in terms of course titles, as in the following statement from a city-wide curriculum guide:

- Grade VII Geography—One Year—Required
- Grade VIII American History—One Year—Required
- Grade IX Civics—One Semester—Required
- Grade IX Geography of the Air Age—One Semester—Required

¹² *Tentative Curriculum, Elementary Grades, Santa Clara County* (Santa Clara County, California, 1939), Vol. I, p. 46.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 61.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, headings taken from pp. 46, 51, 55, 65, 75, 92, 114, 120.

Grade X	World History—One Year—Elective
Grade X	Economic Geography—One Year—Elective
Grade XI	American History—One Year—Required
Grade XII	Contemporary Problems of Democracy—One Year— Elective ¹⁵

Let us examine also a statement of sequence in mathematics, taken from another county-wide curriculum guide. In this statement, sequence is defined in terms of objectives characteristic of each grade level, rather than in terms of overall themes, or centers of interest. The outline is preceded by the caution: "It is to be remembered that at each grade level there will be groups of children whose needs must be met by attention to topics from both preceding and succeeding grades. Each teacher must determine the needs of her group and plan her teaching accordingly, pacing lessons with the maturity level of the group." This indicates the expectation of the committee that the statement will be used in a flexible and critical manner, with as much modification as needed and with considerable pupil-teacher planning and attention to individual differences.

The following statement of objectives for grade five presents a sampling from this statement:

1. Subtraction and addition:
 - a. To increase control of the primary and higher decade combinations.
 - b. To increase control of the principle of regrouping in subtraction and addition, with integers and decimal fractions.
2. Multiplication and division:
 - a. To increase control of the multiplication and division combinations; to discover and control the 10's, 11's, and 12's through 9 as multiplier or quotient.
 - b. To multiply two-and-three-digit multicands by two-and-three-digit multipliers and to multiply larger numbers, with control of o difficulties. . . .
 - c. To multiply a decimal fraction or a mixed decimal by an integer.
 - d. To multiply an integer by a decimal fraction.
 - e. To divide three-to-five-digit dividends by two-digit divisors.
 - f. To discover the teens facts through nine 19's and 19) 139.
 - g. To use division as a means of comparison, the ratio idea.
 - h. To understand the meanings and uses of average and median.

¹⁵ Social Studies Curriculum Committee of Duluth, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

3. Common fractions:

- a. To add and subtract common fractions with like divisors (denominators).
 - b. To multiply a common fraction by an integer.
 - c. To multiply an integer by a common fraction.
 - d. To multiply a common fraction by a common fraction.
 - e. To understand the equivalence of common fractions and reduce fractions to lowest terms in terms of divisor-dividend-quotient relationships.
4. To use vocabulary and signs introduced in preceding grades, and understand the meaning of the terms: rectangle, perimeter, dimensions.¹⁶

This amount of specific detail might be objectionable if the statement were rigidly and unimaginatively followed. In the setting of the point of view preceding the statement, however, such objection would be pointless; the amount of specific detail becomes a help rather than a hindrance to the teacher.

So far we have been concerned with the form of the sequence and the manner of its presentation. This leaves a much more difficult and perhaps unanswerable question: On what bases can we arrive at a recommended sequence in any subject field?

The most logical, and perhaps also the most difficult, approach is through the growth patterns of children. It is very natural to assume that growth patterns should provide the key to the sequence of learning experiences. This is particularly true if we think of growth patterns in terms of needs or developmental tasks. Several attempts have been made to pull available research together in order to arrive at such patterns. Particularly important have been the following:

National Society for the Study of Education, 38th Yearbook, *Child Development and the Curriculum*, Part I (1939).

A. T. Jersild and associates, *Child Development and the Curriculum* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1946).

Faculty of the University School, *How Children Develop* (Ohio State University, Columbus, 1946).

¹⁶ San Diego County Schools, Curriculum Monograph No. 6, Elementary Education Series 1, *Trends in Elementary Education: A Teachers' Guide* (Office of the Superintendent of Schools, San Diego County, San Diego, September, 1945), p. 107.

American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Child Growth and Development Emphases in Teacher Education* [State Teachers College, Oneonta, New York (Charles W. Hunt, Secretary), 1944].

The use of this approach has been most rewarding in relation to general education or core curriculum patterns, and the presentation of this follows in the next section. But it is often very difficult to make the connection between these areas of growth needs, on the one hand, and the statement of sequence in the instructional fields, on the other.

One very interesting attempt to relate growth characteristics to sequence has been made in a county curriculum guide. The following excellent statement is made concerning the characteristics of eleven-year-olds:

The eleven-year-old has often been treated as the adult of the elementary school. Actually, many children of this age are still extending and strengthening the characteristics of previous years. However, some girls enter pubescence at this age and there is some consequent disparity of interest. This factor should be taken into consideration in the organization of working groups.

Socially, the children are highly organized and participate actively in school life.

Intellectually, also, much organization appears. The eleven-year-old can maintain a longer period of intellectual activity between first-hand experiences such as construction, industrial art processes and dramatic expression. Dramatic play, at this point, often develops into dramatics where events are planned and controlled. While the ability to do some abstract thinking is evident, children continue to gain more satisfaction in solving problems that arise in concrete situations.

There is much interest in scientific experiments and procedures. This offers a base for first-hand experiences involving intricacy and precision in technological areas.

There is a significant increase in self-direction and in a serious attitude toward work. The child here begins to set work goals for himself. This is significant for teacher-planning. The eleven-year-old can carry on many individual intellectual responsibilities. He has a heightened interest in world relationships and problems. Those process units of communication and transportation which influence world relationships are especially interesting to him at this age. The same is true of modern cultures whose impact is felt in our living.¹⁷

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 25.

There are obviously many important implications in the foregoing statement for teaching procedures, but little for the designation of an area of study in an instructional field for children of that age level. When we turn to the sequence statement in social studies for this age group, we find the following:

Experiences involving the influence of technology upon the growing interdependence of world communities, approached through transportation and communication, and further developed through a study of the Western Hemisphere.¹⁸

The only possible connection between this statement and the previous description of growth characteristics is involved in the "interest in scientific experiments and procedures" which is said to characterize eleven-year-olds. It should be noted that this is a statement of interest patterns rather than of growth needs or developmental tasks.

This discussion should not be interpreted as critical of the statements in this guide. The statement of growth characteristics is excellent, and the description of the center of interest accurate and to the point. It is used here solely as an illustration of the difficulties involved in trying to make a close connection between the two.

In certain instances, a rather close connection can be made between developmental tasks and grade level themes in subject fields. For example, it is clear that high-school seniors face certain tasks involved in their developing status as young adults. They are directly concerned with problems of employment, family living, boy-girl relationships, and the like. It is logical and obvious, then, to spot twelfth-grade social studies as appropriate for the study of "personal and social problems," and we find such allocation in many school systems. On the other hand, it is possible to argue that the social studies here veer over into general education or core curriculum, which further backs up the point that growth needs can be more directly related to core curriculum patterns than to the subject fields.

Growth patterns of interest sometimes give us more help in arriving at centers of interest in the subject fields. Many junior-high-school boys, for example, are interested in airplanes. Social studies, mathematics, and science outlines for those levels might well emphasize air transportation. But this approach also gets into difficul-

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 26.

ties. Boys of other ages are also interested in airplanes, and many boys of junior-high age are more interested in other things. Furthermore, girls of this age are more interested in learning how to dance and go out on dates than they are in airplanes. Interest patterns are thought-providing but sometimes treacherous guides to sequence designation.

But what about levels of difficulty, particularly in fields like arithmetic? Certainly there has been much carefully managed experimentation devoted to finding out age levels at which it is most appropriate to introduce various topics, such as long and short division, fractions, decimals, and percentage. This research has had much value in preventing educators from tormenting children with arithmetic topics too early in their development. The fact of individual differences in growth has always thrown the monkey wrench into the machinery of topic placement on this basis. Notice how the San Diego County guide cautiously prefaces its statement on arithmetic grade placement:

Research studies concerning phases of grade placement of topics in arithmetic are available, and these studies have had some influence on the placement of topics in courses of study and textbooks. Conclusions from these studies, however, are valid only for the specific conditions under which the research was done, and experience and opinion still must be called upon in determining grade placements.¹⁹

The difficulties involved in applying child development materials to the statement of sequence in subject fields give much encouragement to those who oppose such statements of sequence. It is on this basis that they insist, as we have already noted, that such statements are contrary to what we know about child development. But this conclusion hardly seems justified. The only conclusion we can reasonably draw is that a statement of sequence must be drawn from sources other than child development materials—always provided the statement is flexible enough to allow for individual differences and pupil-teacher planning.

We must recall also that the reasons for having a stated sequence in a subject field are largely administrative in character. They have

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 107.

to do with such matters as promoting teacher morale, helping to induct new and inexperienced teachers into the system, and avoiding undesirable repetition and duplication from one level to another. This perhaps means that administrative factors will play a large part in determining what the sequence should be.

The most direct way to arrive at a sequence is simply to adopt in modified form the sequence prevailing in other school systems. This step has certain immediately obvious weaknesses. One is that widespread agreement is no necessary indication of the validity of the thing agreed upon. Another is that it helps maintain the *status quo*, regardless of whether that status is in itself desirable or not.

This approach, however, has some advantages. It provides a sequence based on areas with which the majority of teachers are familiar. No adjustment to new and unfamiliar patterns is required. There will be a minimum of undesirable kickback against the program. In addition, there will be materials available. Also, the tendency to uniformity will make it possible for textbook publishers, school-movie producers, and the like to concentrate on producing good materials in certain clearly designated areas, rather than spending their time guessing which way the sequence is going to jump.

These advantages will not necessarily lead to an unhealthy state of affairs *provided* there are continual revision, reexamination, and selection of the specific topics to be taught under the sequence headings, and also *provided* there are much pupil-teacher planning and considerable flexibility in the use of the sequence.

For example, the designation of world history as the center of interest in tenth-grade social studies is one based on current practice. Sometimes we dress up the terse topic "world history" and call it "mankind's growth toward world understanding," but the area identified for the grade level is still the world, rather than the community, the state, or the nation. Consider, then, the remarkable and tremendous range of experiences and activities possible under that heading! The mere designation of grade ten for world history provides almost no limitation either on the local school system or on the individual teacher.

The chief danger in the method of following current practice is that significant and important areas of problems may be omitted

entirely. For example, a state-wide sequence arrived at by majority vote may omit almost completely any consideration of community problems in the social studies above the primary grades.

In approaching the problem of sequence, therefore, it is desirable that a committee first consider the problem of scope—that is, the total range of important problems which should be included somewhere. A social studies program should obviously include human relationships in a number of environments—home and family, school, neighborhood, community, region, state, nation, and world. Any statement of scope in any subject field, of course, should if possible be derived from the statement of objectives for the all-school program. For example, most statements of philosophy and objectives stress the understandings, attitudes, and abilities involved in the democratic way of life. Some provision for the study and practice of democracy should certainly be made in any definition of scope in the social studies.

None of these should be omitted from a comprehensive program in the social studies. But it is also necessary to include in the scope the types of problems as well. One simple way to do this is to insist that the scope include political problems, social problems, and economic problems. Another way is to list the basic social functions of human society: conserving, organizing and governing, transporting, communicating, producing, expressing spiritual and aesthetic impulses, and the like. Still a third way is to forgo logic and simply list the most important specific problems which must be provided for. Such a list today might include such problems as inter-cultural relations, building of world peace, labor-management relations, housing, maintenance of civil liberties, extension of democracy in the world, public health. This list need not be inclusive in the sense of including all possible problems, but should include the important problems which ought not to be left out.

Once we have decided on the scope (the total range of operations) in a subject field such as the social studies, we can approach the problem of sequence more frankly in terms of administrative feasibility. The problem of sequence consists then of arranging the elements of the scope into some kind of year-by-year or level-by-level patterns. We can take the prevailing sequence pattern as a starting point and examine its adequacy in relation to the elements

in our scope. If it does not provide adequately for the including of all the important elements in the scope, we have a concrete basis for its modification.

The argument here is not one for administrative expediency, but rather for deciding what the really important issues are which must be resolved on intrinsic bases. The point of view here expressed is (1) that scope is a question of intrinsic educational and social values into which factors of administrative feasibility or expediency should enter to no degree whatsoever, and (2) that sequence is largely a matter of practical school arrangements rather than of intrinsic values. The question whether we include world relationships in social studies is crucial and intrinsic; but the question whether we assign it to the ninth grade or the tenth (or whether we assign it to any particular grade) is a practical administrative question which can justifiably be related to such factors as teacher morale and the availability of materials. Sequence become a means of carrying out the educational philosophy involved in the scope.

Again it must be repeatedly urged that every statement of scope and sequence be examined in relation to the agreed-upon objectives of the school. Does the scope provide reasonably well for the major learning outcomes involved in the school objectives? Is the handling of sequence consistent with the general philosophy expressed? For it is on this point that we run the danger of getting wide divergence between philosophy and practice.

Unit or Topic Breakdown Within the Grade Level Themes: Outline of Needed Teaching Aids. Every grade or developmental level theme or center of interest, of course, has a scope and sequence of its own. It is possible, if curriculum committees think it desirable, to outline the topics or problems, for example, to be studied under the large heading of world history.

A breakdown of units, topics, or problems within a grade or developmental level theme or center of interest can serve three legitimate purposes: (1) to stimulate the imagination of teachers as a basis of preplanning; (2) to make more concrete by example the definition of the theme or center of interest itself; (3) to provide a basis for the development of aids for teachers in the form of resource units (see Chapter V). These functions can be served best only if the breakdown of topics or units is kept on an illustrative

or suggestive basis. There is nothing in these functions which makes it necessary to stipulate "required content" or even to outline the course in terms of content structure.

The following statement, taken from the guide for "community living" in the eighth-grade center of interest of a state-wide bulletin illustrates a combination of definiteness and flexibility:

The study of community life should guide the student in realizing his rights and responsibilities as a citizen of the community, state, and nation; in respecting the individual as an important part of the group; in participation in the activities and in cooperation with the members of his group in local problems; in intelligent planning for himself and for his community. The following are suggested as areas of topics or problems:

I. The Community.

How many kinds of communities do you know?

Why are they different?

How did your community start?

Why did your family settle here?

II. Communities are useful.

In what ways does the community

care for your health?

keep you safe?

provide transportation?

encourage your education?

furnish food, clothing, and shelter?

allow you to have fun?

satisfy your love of beauty?

.

VI. Communities are continually changing.

What are the causes for change in the community?

Why should communities plan for the future?

Who should do the planning?²⁰

The four questions below, suggestions for the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, are taken from a state-wide guide in science:

1. Why do we have varieties of plants in our communities?

2. How do plants from other parts of the world benefit us?

²⁰ Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, Bulletin No. 14, *Scope and Sequence of the Social Studies Program* (State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, November, 1947), pp. 23-24.

3. Of what significance to us are the structure and life history of plants?
4. How has man maintained and improved the plants about him?²¹

Such an outline, of course, moves in the direction of extreme flexibility. The committee, however, provided further detail for teachers who want it. Notice the illustrative material given for the fourth grade only.

Basic concepts. The number of each kind of plant remains about the same year after year. This is called the "balance of nature." Man sometimes upsets this balance. Flowers are annuals, biennials and perennials.

Parts of the plant. Foods and water are transported to the leaves through roots and stems. Trees may be identified by their leaf shapes. Trees lose their leaves in the fall because the sap recedes.

Use of plants. Some plants are used for medicines.

Care and protection of plants. Wild flowers must be protected. (Know how to pick them.)²²

Sometimes the breakdown of topics within a year's course is implied in the statement of goals or objectives, as in the following statement on solid geometry from a state-wide mathematics guide:

- A. To further main objective of plane geometry: the understanding of nature of proof.
- B. To increase one's ability to visualize and represent the relative positions of objects in space and to develop knowledge of familiar spatial relationships.
- C. To show application in industry, trade, architecture, engineering, navigation, warfare, etc.
- D. To give opportunity or practical application for use of formulas, logarithms, slide rule and approximate numbers; review of arithmetic calculations; and to develop skill in drawing.²³

Further topical breakdown is indicated in this same guide by statements such as the following:

The phase of solid geometry that should probably receive the most emphasis at the present time is the work in spheres. Less time should be

²¹ Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, *Scope and Sequence Chart for Science in the Elementary Grades* (Tentative Proposal by State Elementary Science Committee, April 5 and 6, 1946), p. 3.

²² *Ibid.*

²³ Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Washington, *Temporary Guides for the Senior High School Curriculum* (1943), pp. 113-114.

spent on the abstract proofs and more time on the applications of spherical solid geometry to the earth. The pupil should have a thorough understanding of:

1. Latitude. Meaning, use, and how determined by the sun.
2. Longitude. Meaning, use, and how determined by time.
3. Great and small circles. Applied to air distances.
4. Rhumb lines.
5. Arctic Circle, Tropic of Cancer, etc. How determined.
6. Celestial sphere and astronomical triangle.
7. Map projections. Why different kinds are necessary and the particular value of each. Emphasize Mercator, gnomonic and Lambert projections and show their uses in navigation.²⁴

The following outline for grade seven, taken from a city curriculum guide, makes much more specific prescriptions and even indicates which units are required and which are optional.

Grade VII Geography

- I. Overview of Global World—continents—oceans—location of U.S. with reference to the rest of the world.
- II. Britain and British Lands.
 - A. The British Isles—The Homeland.
 1. Composition of British Homeland—Great Britain and Northern Ireland.
 2. Dependence of this small densely populated area on outside sources for needed food and raw materials.
 3. Occupations.
 4. Eire.
 - B. British Lands throughout world under varying degrees of control.
 1. British Lands in Northern North America.
 2. British Lands in Middle America.
 3. British Lands in Africa.
 4. Australia and New Zealand.
 5. British Possessions in Asia.
- IV. France.
 - A. Homeland.
 1. Climate and surface.
 2. Occupations.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 114.

B. French colonial empire.

1. Africa.
2. Other possessions.²⁵

The guide lists seven required units for this grade level and then points to possibilities of six optional units as follows:

- I. Other Eastern Asiatic Countries: Korea, Siam, Burma, etc.
- II. Islands of World Importance and Interests: Philippines—Other Important East Indian Islands—Hawaiian Islands.
- III. General Overview of Africa.
- IV. Review of World Patterns.
- V. International Relations Summary.
- VI. Maps and How to Use Them.²⁶

The point of view of the committee in Duluth in relation to the use of these suggestions is stated as follows:

Each subject or course in the Duluth program is divided into units. Some of these units are regarded as *basic*, that is, necessary in securing an overall view or in building a mental structure for subsequent materials and ideas. Each teacher in each school is expected to deal with all the *basic* units.

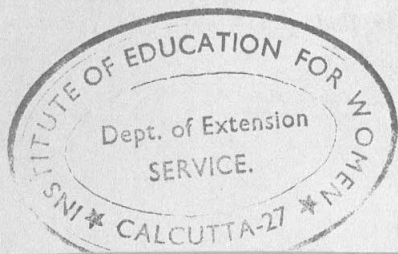
In addition to the basic units, a number of others are labeled as *optional*. From these the teachers and classes can choose the ones that interest them. In addition to the basic and optional units, the Committee encourages every teacher to develop and utilize one or two *experimental* units. These experimental units may be passed on to other teachers. After a period of experimentation, they may be adopted as *optional* or even *basic* units for the entire system.²⁷

This provides a combination of fairly rigid requirements with some opportunity for choice and modification. The wisdom of stating certain units as required is open to question and discussion. This writer believes that such statements should be made only if they originate with the teachers involved and if they are necessary for teacher morale. Such statements are most undesirable when they originate in the lack of confidence in a superintendent's office in relation to the professional competence of the teaching staff. Fortunately, the Duluth statement did originate with teacher committees

²⁵ Social Studies Curriculum Committee of Duluth, *op. cit.*, pp. 20, 21.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 15.



and so represents a type of requirement which teachers feel they need and can endorse.

The breakdown of topics or problems within a grade or developmental level theme must be examined continuously in relation to all-school philosophy, principles, and objectives.

An extensive presentation of resource unit structure and development will be given in Chapter V. It should be observed at this point, however, that the topic and unit breakdown of grade level themes may suggest areas around which resource units might be developed.

Suggested Modifications for Various Types of School Situations. A state-wide curriculum guide in particular, and county-wide and city-wide guides to some extent, are usually aimed at a variety of school situations. It is a good idea to give the local groups some help in adapting the suggestions in the guide to their own local conditions. Reference has already been made to the sequence proposed in the Wisconsin state-wide guide in social studies (pages 123-124). The following materials are inserted in the guide particularly to help teachers in the one-room rural situation.

Suggested Plan for Social Studies in One-Teacher Schools

The one-teacher school with all eight grades working together presents its own curriculum problems. In general, the smaller the number of different classes, the greater the possibilities for teacher-pupil planning of desirable learning experience. Social studies are especially adapted to grade combinations since varied materials are available at different levels. It is, therefore, suggested that the following plan be considered by teachers who have all of the elementary grades represented in their classroom. Other combinations of grade levels may be found more suitable for certain situations.

Grade 1

How do my family and I work and play together?

(See page 15 for complete outline for Grade 1. See also outline for kindergarten on page 14.)

Both reading and language periods offer opportunities for developing social studies concepts and for teaching the fundamental skills needed.

Grades 2 and 3

If these groups are combined the alternation plan could start with either Program A or Program B as seems better for the two years' work. Program A—Primary

How do people in our neighborhood live together?

(See page 15 for complete outline of the year's work.)

Program B—Primary

How can the people of our community live cooperatively with people of other communities?

(See page 17 for complete outline of the year's work.)

Grades 4, 5, and 6

By combining these three groups in a three-year cycle, any one of the three yearly programs could be used to initiate the plan. The order of the other two levels can be adapted to suit the local conditions.

Program A—Intermediate

How do the different kinds of Wisconsin communities depend upon each other and upon communities of other states and countries?

(See page 19 for complete outline for the year's work.)

Program B—Intermediate

How can we better know and understand our neighbors in the United States and Canada?

(See page 21 for complete outline for the year's work.)

Program C—Intermediate

How can we learn more about Europe and Asia and the relationships that bind us together?

(See page 22 for complete outline for the year's work.)

Grades 7 and 8

The work for Grades 7 and 8 must be planned in cooperation with the staff of the high school which the pupils will attend. If the high school follows the 13 year sequence as recommended in this bulletin, the following programs can be used in optional order.

Program A—Upper Grades

How can we and the people of Latin America, Africa, Australia, and the Pacific Islands work together for a better world?

(See page 23 for complete outline for the year's work.)

Program B—Upper Grades

Community living

(See page 23 for complete outline for the year's work.)

It is understood that no thirteen-year sequence can be set up that will fit the needs of every school. The plan here offered is flexible. Other group combinations or individual pupil adjustments may be much more workable. Counties and school units within a county should analyze their

needs and make any other adaptations that seem more conducive to continued pupil growth.²⁸

Suggested Teaching Aids: Activities, Materials, Points on Teaching Methods. Sometimes curriculum guides in the subject fields will contain bibliographies, suggested teaching and learning activities, and the like. If the guide is to be kept within reasonable size limits, it is impossible to do anything more than indicate a base sketch along these lines. But suggested materials and activities should be rich, not meager. They should be regarded as resources, rather than prescriptions to be slavishly followed. For these reasons it is suggested that the curriculum guides in the subject fields make no attempt to go into teaching procedures, materials, and activities.

Suggestions for teaching procedures and activities more suitably go into separate guides or bulletins organized around particular topics and problems. The resource unit organization is particularly helpful in this connection and is presented in Chapter V of this book.

The foregoing point of view is to be taken as one having validity in general terms only. There may be situations where it is just the thing to incorporate teaching aids into the subject fields curriculum guides. But when such an approach is followed, there should be good and clear reasons for doing so.

CURRICULUM GUIDES IN THE COMMON LEARNINGS, OR GENERAL EDUCATION, PROGRAM

Some schools, elementary and secondary, devote part or all of the school day to a block of time in which the basic organization is made in terms of the needs, problems, or tasks of children and youth rather than in terms of the subject fields. This course or program usually goes by such a name as "common learnings," "core," or "general education." The arguments used in behalf of curriculum guides in the subject fields apply here also. They serve the purpose of helping the teachers relate most effectively their instruction in the core class to the overall objectives or philosophy of the all-school program.

²⁸ Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, Bulletin No. 14, *Scope and Sequence of the Social Studies Program* (State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, November, 1947), pp. 58-60.

In general, a curriculum guide for the common learnings program would include the same parts as one for a subject field: (1) statement of philosophy and objectives, the place of common learnings in the all-school program; (2) scope and sequence of the common learnings, with possible statements of themes, or centers of interest, for various levels; (3) unit or topic breakdown within the grade level themes; (4) suggested possibilities of modification for various school situations; (5) suggested teaching aids.

Philosophy and Objectives

Curriculum guides for common learnings, or core, usually place considerable stress on all-school objectives and philosophy of education. The following basic principles are stated in the core curriculum guide prepared for the Eugene (Oregon) Public Schools:

1. The school is committed to the development of democratic ideals and ways of living.
2. The school curriculum must not only be in harmony with the rapidly changing nature of our social order but must be an agency for social improvement.
3. Social as well as personal integration requires the development of a certain commonness of ways of thinking and acting.
4. The curriculum should provide for differences within and among individuals.
5. In the modern school the teacher is a leader of pupil activities.
6. Learning is purposeful activity.
7. Learning is a growth process resulting from continuous interaction of the individual and his environment.
8. Education must be concerned with the whole life of the child.
9. In the modern school subject matter is an essential tool in the learning process—materials with which pupils work in their learning activities.

The core consists of the common elements of the curriculum. This may be thought of as a body of subject matter organized into required courses, or it may be conceived as those common experiences essential to desired pupil growths. The acceptance of the points of view under the section on "principles" commits one to the latter concept—that the core curriculum consists of those common experiences deemed essential to the attainment of the aims of education.²⁹

²⁹ *Explanatory Statement—Core Curriculum of Eugene Public Schools* (Eugene, Oregon, undated, but about 1939–1940).

The guide continues by outlining "desired outcomes of education," organized under the headings "attitudes and appreciations," "understandings," and "essential abilities." For example, these are a few of the outcomes stated:

The disposition to apply the scientific method in one's thinking. The tendency to be open-minded, yet critical in thought and action.

The attitude of tolerance. A willingness to give courteous consideration to the beliefs and ways of living of persons of different race, religion, political party, occupation, etc.

An attitude of respect for and loyalty to democratic ideals and institutions.

An attitude of constructive participation and cooperation in the activities of a democratic society.

An understanding of the interdependence of all forms of life.

An understanding of the way in which all life is modified by its natural environment.

An understanding of the way in which science has transformed man's modes of living and thinking.

The ability to read various types of materials easily and effectively.

The ability to solve problems and to do reflective thinking.

The ability to express oneself forcefully, clearly, and correctly in oral and written form.

The ability to use mathematical procedures in practical life situations.

The ability to cooperate effectively in the affairs of a democratic society.³⁰

Scope and Sequence of the Common Learnings

Curriculum guides for core, or common learnings, frequently define scope in terms of basic social functions, such as the following:

Conserving human resources.

Conserving non-human resources.

Producing, distributing, and consuming goods and services.

Expressing and satisfying recreational, aesthetic, and spiritual needs.

Communicating.

Transporting.

Governing.

Educating.³¹

Similar in point of view, but with some difference in wording, is this statement from Columbia, South Carolina:

³⁰ *Ibid.*

³¹ *Ibid.*

Protecting life and health.

Performing responsibilities of citizenship.

Earning a living.

Conserving and using property and natural resources.

Expressing spiritual and aesthetic impulses.

Using leisure wisely.

Producing, distributing, and consuming goods.

Communicating ideas and transporting people and commodities.

Securing an education.³²

Other statements of scope using social functions are found in curriculum guides at various times for state programs in Arkansas, Georgia, Kansas, Mississippi, Texas, and Virginia, and for city programs in Burbank (California), Columbia (South Carolina), Denver (Colorado), East High School, Eugene (Oregon), Preston (Idaho), Riverside (California), San Bernardino (California), Santa Barbara (California), and Tulsa (Oklahoma).

Underlying these statements is the assumption that the major areas of needs and problems for youth in our society can be identified in relation to these common, universal activities of human beings in all times and in all places. Such statements have a very strong social orientation and emphasize particularly group activities, group responsibilities, group processes. If such statements as these are used, they might well be strengthened by the inclusion of individual activities and needs, with equal emphasis on psychological processes and realities, such as "maintaining and advancing personal effectiveness."

Scope may be defined as areas of problems, as is done in the program for the Ohio State University School and the Minneapolis secondary program:

- A. Personal Living (problems related to growing up)
 - 1. Understanding my body
 - 2. Beliefs and superstitions
 - 3. Hobbies
 - 4. Managing my personal affairs
- B. Personal-Social Living (problems related to living with others)
 - 1. Sports and recreation

³² Curriculum Bulletin 1, *A Guide to Curriculum Improvement* (Columbia, South Carolina, Public Schools, 1940), cited in *Materials on Scope and Sequence* (Stanford Social Education Investigation, 1942; mimeographed).

2. Living in university school
3. Living in the home
4. Living in the neighborhood
5. Personality and appearance
- C. Social-Civic-Economic Living (problems of living in and understanding society)
 1. Earning a living
 2. Housing
 3. Natural resources
 4. Community agencies and services
 - Recreation
 - Protection
 - Government
 - Education
 - Welfare
 5. Communication
 6. Living in Columbus
 7. Living in Ohio
 8. Living in another country or other countries³³

We propose the following as a basis for defining scope in psychological as well as sociological terms. This could also serve as one way of defining purposes in general education, through continuous activities of individuals. (See pages 64-67 of this book.)

1. Building mental and emotional health and personal effectiveness.
2. Enjoying life through rich interests and recreational activities.
3. Achieving maximum physical health and displaying concern for physical health of others.
4. Enjoying life and earning a living through occupational adjustment and success.
5. Participating responsibly in community life.
6. Establishing and maintaining democratic human relationships, respect for personality.
7. Developing understandings and skills needed in effective group processes of planning, discussing, thinking.
8. Understanding, deepening, and extending meaning and application of democracy.
9. Developing understandings and skills needed to maintain and strengthen family living.

³³ Cited in *A Primer for the Common Learnings* (Division of Secondary Education, Minneapolis Public Schools, May, 1948), p. 20.

10. Taking increasingly intelligent and contributing parts in modern economic processes—producing, consuming, distributing, transporting, communicating.
11. Developing values, ideas, standards of conduct, and goals for living.
12. Achieving necessary and minimum literacy: language, quantitative, industrial, economic.
13. Identifying oneself with our nation's ideals and our nation's role in building a world society.
14. Understanding the cultural lag in our society and determining to overcome and reduce it.

There is more variation in statements of sequence than in statements of scope. The following statement from the Eugene (Oregon) scope and sequence chart is among those which are more obvious and direct:

Grades 1, 2, and 3 overall theme "Experiencing in the immediate environment." (Home, School, Community).

Grades 4, 5, 6, 7 overall theme "Experiencing in an expanding physical, social, and industrial environment." (Pacific Northwest, North America, The World, Industrial Environment.)

Grades 8, 9, 10 overall theme "Effective living in a democratic environment." (Community living, United States, World Problems, Personal and Social Problems of High School Pupil.)

Grades 11 and 12. "Economic, social, and political problems of a dynamic society."³⁴

The Virginia sequence (1937-1939) provides an interesting illustration of a statement of sequence based on factors other than expanding environment and geographical areas:

1. Home and school life.
2. Community life.
3. Adaptation of life to environmental forces of nature.
4. Adaptation of life to advancing physical frontiers.
5. Effects of inventions and discoveries upon our living.
6. Effects of machine production upon our living.
7. Social provisions for cooperative living.
8. Effects of inventions upon basic human needs.

³⁴ *Explanatory Statement—Core Curriculum of Eugene Public Schools* (Eugene, Oregon, undated, but about 1939-1940).

9. Effects of agrarianism and industrialism upon our living.
10. Effects of democracy upon human relationships.³⁵

There is evident in this statement a concern with cultural lag, the imbalance between mechanical and social advancements, and with the general problem of the relationship of man to his physical and biological environment. This concern is even more richly suggested and illustrated in the statement of sequence for the Santa Barbara (California) public schools:

- K. and
1. Growth in effective living through self adjustment within the immediate environment. ["Growth in effective living" is repeated throughout.]
 2. Adjusting to our community.
 3. Adjusting to the community through the developing insights into the manner in which the natural and controlled environment is contributing to life in our community.
 4. Adjusting to the community through developing insights into the manner in which the present culture groups are adjusting to life in our community.
 5. Developing insights into the manner in which present as compared with former culture groups carry on the basic functions of human living in Santa Barbara and California.
 6. Understanding how modern technics are utilized in carrying out the basic functions of human living in the United States.
 7. Problem-centered experiences directed toward understanding the interdependence of individuals in our school, our community, the regions of our nation, and the countries of our American neighbors.
 8. Problem-centered experiences directed toward understanding how man's courage, knowledge, discoveries, and inventions have affected his ways of living.
 9. Problem-centered experiences directed toward understanding and appreciating the individual's privileges and responsibilities as an American citizen.
 10. Problem-centered experiences directed toward happy and effective personal, spiritual, social, recreational, and vocational living in the home, school, and community.

³⁵ *Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools* (1937) and *Tentative Materials of Instruction of the Core Curriculum of Secondary Schools* (1939), cited in *Materials on Scope and Sequence* (Stanford Social Education Investigation, 1942; mimeographed).

- 11, 12. Problem-centered experiences directed toward achieving the highest possible quality of human experience through striving for social, political, and economic democracy in its local, state, and national setting, and for peace and cooperation on the international scene.³⁶

We are faced here with the same question encountered in setting up sequence in the subject fields. On what bases may we propose grade level themes, or centers of interest—this time in the common learnings, or general education, program?

The sociological emphasis stands out in the statements of sequence just presented. In these statements we see the result of much careful thinking on social relationships and on how various patterns of relationships might be distributed as organizing principles throughout the various levels of the curriculum. But there is little to indicate why particular themes are designated for particular grades. These allocations are made arbitrarily, but they can be defended on the basis that they do provide some guide lines as an aid to teacher morale and security. Only it is very important that the arbitrary character of these designations be fully recognized for what they are!

But what about the possibilities of setting up guide lines to sequence in common learnings as they emerge from growth studies of individual children living in our culture? Do the maturing needs, interests, or developmental tasks of children and youth help us on this more than they do on the problem of sequence in the subject fields? It appears that they do, provided we do not try to draw the sequence guide lines too specifically.

For example, the developmental tasks of adolescents in our culture, as stated in Chapter II, might be used as the centers of interest for common learnings in the senior high school. They do not provide too much guidance, however, for differentiating between ninth grade and tenth grade, and so on. But even here we get some help. The developmental task of "adjusting to a changing body" is to a large extent one of early rather than of later adolescence.

One of the most interesting pioneer efforts to get at sequence through the developing problems and needs of children and youth has been made by the "problems approach" committee of the Wis-

³⁶ *Developmental Curriculum* (Santa Barbara Public Schools, 1938).

consin Cooperative Educational Planning Program. This group has published its materials as they relate to guide lines in the kindergarten. They are very detailed and specific, and it is hoped that similar guide lines will be provided later for other maturity levels. But the fact that a large group of people had to work hard for two years to arrive at sequence guide lines for the kindergarten alone shows the complexity of this problem. If we are to have valid sequence guide lines to the general education program, they cannot be dashed off on the spur of the moment!

This committee indicated the following four questions which should be asked concerning children at any level:

1. What growth characteristics do boys and girls exhibit at this level of maturation?
2. What kinds of social behavior do they normally display at this stage?
3. What tasks are set for children of this age by virtue of the interaction of maturation level and the demands of the culture?
4. What activities and learning experiences must be provided . . . to help boys and girls perform these tasks and thus progress toward the next higher level of development?³⁷

The committee attempted to answer these questions by drawing on materials relating to maturation and cultural characteristics, that is, to "the child in his culture."

For example, the committee presents the following statement of developmental characteristics of kindergarten children in the area of personal ideals and values:

Until the time the four to six year old child enters school, his habits of thought and behavior are largely molded by the home atmosphere. He imitates the speech, manners and ways of doing which he finds around him. His likes and dislikes are often built through suggestions made by parents or others.

By the time the child is five he is regarded as "very good." He is generally truthful and honest. The out-of-bound tendencies exhibited by the four year old child have given way to a desire to please and to be acceptable. However, he does not sense the qualities of "goodness" or "bad-

³⁷ Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, Bulletin No. 12, *Guides to Curriculum Building: Kindergarten Level* (State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, October, 1947), p. 11.

ness." His notion of good or bad is directly related to specific activities which he terms good or bad merely because his parents allow or forbid them.

He has learned at an early age how to demand and get attention. He gets a great deal of satisfaction out of the attention of others and at this age requests help and information from adults.³⁸

In relation to the foregoing statement follow certain detailed "developmental tasks":

- To learn habits of speech and behavior which are acceptable to his expanding environment.
- To develop traits of honesty and truthfulness.
- To build habits of safety and obedience which will protect him.
- To learn to take criticism and suggestion.
- To accept the consequences of his own acts.
- To realize the effects of his own acts.
- To understand and respect rules and regulations.
- To begin to have a generalized sense of good and bad.
- To feel satisfaction from doing what he knows to be right.
- To develop without social, racial, and religious prejudices.
- To gain a clearer understanding of God, death and other spiritual concepts.³⁹

These are followed by a statement of "curriculum implications for the school":

- To set an example of fairness, courtesy, honesty and truthfulness in dealing with the child.
- To have the adults refrain from showing feeling of embarrassment, over-anxiety, uncertainty, distrust, or prejudice through the voice, gesture, facial expression, or conversation.
- To require certain things of every child and be firm and consistent about them.
- To avoid making rules and regulations which will create scenes over unimportant issues.
- To give the child a signal or warning and time to complete what he is doing instead of making a sudden demand of him.
- To avoid instilling fears or producing negative responses through poorly worded commands. Many commands are invitations to say, "No." Others are often accompanied by threats.

³⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 38.

³⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 38.

To show approval without building up a dependence upon praise and reward or bribery.⁴⁰

The curriculum guide provides a fourth column for teacher's questions and observations to be jotted down and offers several suggested questions:

What experiences should I give each child that will help him to learn why behavior is acceptable or not acceptable (i.e. safety, health, courtesy, or right and wrong?)

How can I help each child to judge each individual on his own merits?⁴¹

A similar section is provided which uses as its starting point not the "developmental characteristics of kindergarten children" but the "major social functions with related problems and trends."

For example, the following is stated under "related problems and trends":

Increasing leisure time opens up the possibility for wider experience in and greater appreciation of aesthetic pursuits. Education for leisure begins at an early age.⁴²

This suggests the following "responsibilities" for the child:

To experiment creatively with many materials.

To find purpose, pleasure and a degree of success in creative activities.

To gain a sense of fulfillment through sensitivity to color, line, sound and rhythm.

To develop ideas to express.

To find joy in improved workmanship.⁴³

The "implications for the curriculum planner" follow:

To furnish a wealth of materials with which to experiment.

To help the child find a keen interest in the problems of living which will give purpose and pleasure in creative activity.

To use discussion periods to stimulate constructive evaluation and encourage improvement in workmanship.⁴⁴

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 39.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*

⁴² *Ibid.*, p. 92.

⁴³ *Ibid.*, p. 92.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 92.

And the suggested question in the teacher's column is: "What can I do to stimulate wider creative expression in my room?"

The foregoing materials illustrate the degree of analysis required to approach the problem of sequence in the common learnings, or general education, program. Certainly the specific phases of child development and cultural influence at this level produce a variety of problems, tasks, and suggested emphases. It would be difficult to produce from this wealth of material a snappy overall title to serve as a theme, or center of interest, for the kindergarten. Perhaps it will be necessary for us to sacrifice some of our desire for brief, simple overall phrases characterizing these themes at the various grade or maturity levels. We must face the question of the extent to which such theme statements are desirable or necessary.

Suggested Teaching Aids

A guide to core, or common learnings, may also contain listings of available teaching aids, such as resource units. The Minneapolis guide, for example, lists prepared "resource guides" in the following areas: (1) conflicts between ideals and practices; (2) driver education and training; (3) home and family living; (4) Minneapolis city government; (5) natural resources of Minnesota; (6) orientation unit for seventh grade; (7) the world in which we work.⁴⁵

CURRICULUM GUIDES FOR SPECIAL AREAS OF PROBLEMS, TOPICS, OR THEMES

Curriculum guides often are desirable not only in subject fields or in common learnings as a whole, but in some special topics cutting across many aspects of the school program. During recent years, for example, there has been much emphasis on such topics as aviation, conservation, coöperatives, intercultural relations, and traffic safety. But it is pointed out rightly that these topics, instead of being taught as new "subjects" in the curriculum, might be emphasized in common learnings classes, or in a variety of subject fields.

The contents and organization of curriculum guides in such problems will probably vary much from one type of problem to another.

⁴⁵ Division of Secondary Education, Minneapolis Public Schools, *A Primer for the Common Learnings* (Minneapolis, May, 1948), pp. 23-25.

Here, for example, is the table of contents from a state-wide curriculum bulletin in aviation:

Why aviation education?

Aviation in the elementary school.

Aviation in the high school.

General aviation in the high school.

Resource units available.

Sources of free and low cost materials.

Selected aviation education films.

Selected aviation periodicals.

A working bibliography of aviation for elementary schools.

A working bibliography of aviation for junior and senior high schools.⁴⁶

The section on aviation in the high school has subsections on social studies, science, mathematics, English, industrial arts, and fine arts.

Such curriculum bulletins as these should not be confused with resource units. (See Chapter V.) The chief users of resource units are classroom teachers carrying on preplanning. But the curriculum bulletins we are describing here are designed more specifically for curriculum committees and planning groups. They are set up to provide guidance and help to groups preparing curriculum guides in the subject fields and in the common learnings.

Notice the type of material provided in this aviation bulletin under the heading "intermediate grades" in the section on aviation in the elementary school:

The child of intermediate school age has by now a basis in experience for expanding his learning activities and concepts. In the social studies children are progressively introduced to problems of state and nation, later to consider the world as a whole. Schools are faced with the challenge of developing concepts of time and space which change even as they are being studied. It is 2556 flying miles from New York to San Francisco. That meant months by oxcart, days by train, twelve hours by commercial air transportation, and who knows what by jet-propelled planes. The speed of sound was once of concern chiefly to the research physicist, but planes flying at near super-sonic speeds force it into the world of the common man and the school child. Technical as these topics may seem, they are as real as the proverbial price of eggs. Even the technicalities of geography change in importance under the impact of avia-

⁴⁶ Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, Bulletin No. 8, *Flightways in Education* (State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, 1947).

tion. The 'trade winds' and 'doldrums' give way in importance to the great circle as functional determiner of transportation routes.

Social concepts, too, have changed rapidly with the development of aviation and rapid communication. 'The children of foreign lands,' for example, once a favorite topic of study, now become 'the children of one world,' bound together by radio, the airplane and atomic energy in an economic, if not social, oneness. A unit on airplanes will not only serve to acquaint children with the significance of aviation. Present and potential developments in aviation force a reconsideration of the basic assumptions in the teaching of elementary social studies.

The criteria used in the selection and organization of science material for the intermediate level are the same as for the primary grades. It is important to remember that the study of science is to help children develop and is not an end in itself. Experiences should be used to assist the children to continue their exploration and discovery of the meaningful aspects of their enlarging environment. These experiences may include an understanding of the interactions of weather elements, the effect of physical features of the earth on flying conditions, the basic physical laws affecting the flight of aircraft, the problems of using natural resources of the earth, and health and safety problems peculiar to flying.

In language arts, curriculum makers may use aviation to provide experiences and environment that make oral and written means of communication necessary and personally satisfying to children. Through experiencing airplane tours, talking to persons engaged in aviation, observing airplanes in flight, and reading aviation literature, the child can progress in his ability to listen and observe for information, make oral presentations, write effectively, and read both rapidly and with comprehension. Expression through the graphic arts will, of course, parallel that in writing and speaking.

Mathematics in the intermediate grades adds to the partially developed ability of the child to do such things as to think quantitatively, to communicate quantitative ideas, and to solve quantitative problems. Aviation provides stimulating experiences which may be drawn upon to encourage the development of such abilities.⁴⁷

Sometimes a curriculum guide for a topic area of this kind may include an illustrative resource unit. This occurs in a guide on cooperatives.⁴⁸ In addition, however, this guide contains a statement

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 9-10.

⁴⁸ *Cooperatives in School and Community: A Teacher's Guide*, prepared jointly by the Workshop on Organization and Administration of Rural Education of Teachers College, Columbia University, the State Curriculum Workshop

on the history and meaning of coöperatives, a survey of current school practices in teaching coöperatives, and a body of suggestions on the history and meaning of coöperatives, a survey of current phasis on the possibilities in vocational agriculture and vocational home economics.

CURRICULUM GUIDES FOR OTHER PHASES OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Guide lines and aids are needed for the nonclassroom instruction phases of the curriculum too: guidance, student activities, community service projects, and work experience. Relatively little has been done up to this point in preparing bulletins along these lines. Although, in general, preparation of curriculum bulletins is the responsibility of professional educational workers, these bulletins on the aspects of the school program other than formalized classroom instruction might well involve the participation of students and lay people.

One such curriculum bulletin has been prepared as a state-wide guide to the guidance program. This bulletin is designed to help teachers, administrators, and guidance specialists plan guidance services in their local school systems. It contains the following sections:

- Working together.
- Knowing your pupils.
- Talking things over with the child.
- Talking things over with the parents.
- Obtaining and using occupational information.
- Using community and state resources.
- Providing pre-service and in-service education for Wisconsin teachers.⁴⁹

An example of shorter and more informal materials along the same line for local use is a leaflet called *Do You Know Jane and John?* These excerpts indicate its informal and down-to-earth character:

of the University of Wisconsin, and the Statewide Committee on Cooperatives of the Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1947).

⁴⁹ Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, Bulletin No. 11, *Guidance Services Personalize Education* (State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, September, 1947), p. 2.

Do you know the pupils in your classes, their interests, hobbies, abilities, responsibilities, and personality traits?

Whether we teach children in the kindergarten, students in the high school; whether we teach mathematics or music, our ultimate object is the same—to help build well-adjusted individuals.

Regardless of the specific grade level or the subject-area objectives, we are all trying to help Jane and John to become well-adjusted persons. The specific grade level and subject-area aims are all established with that in view. The curriculum objectives and the ultimate objective of education are, therefore, inseparable.⁵⁰

Curriculum guides in these phases of the all-school program should stress the relationships of the particular phase to the general objectives of education. There is danger of developing detailed statements of techniques and activities in student activities, work experience, and the like which may become ends in themselves. The nonclassroom instruction phase of education must be as consistent with our professed goals as the work in mathematics, English, social studies, or common learnings.

WHO PREPARES CURRICULUM GUIDES?

The preparation of curriculum guides, particularly in the area of the instructional fields for formalized classroom instruction, is for the most part a professional responsibility. Taking the initiative for having such guides prepared is particularly a responsibility of state and local leadership groups.

In most programs curriculum guides are brought out under the auspices of committees, state-wide, city-wide, or local school committees. The function of a committee is to consider basic policy and organization, but not necessarily to do the detailed writing and editing of the materials. Committees are part of the leadership groups and should be made up of any persons competent to function effectively as committee members—regardless of whether they are administrators, supervisors, or classroom teachers. (The activities of committees will be presented further in Chapter VII.)

The writing and editing of curriculum guides should be carried out by professional workers—teachers, administrators, or supervisors

⁵⁰ Elizabeth Brady and C. F. Evans, *Do You Know Jane and John?* (La Crosse, Wisconsin, Public Schools), p. 2.

—with special talents and interests for this type of activity. In the past some curriculum leaders have assumed that *all* teachers should take part in the detailed writing of curriculum materials. This can be justified in the preparation of resource units (see Chapter V), but is of doubtful value in the preparation of general curriculum bulletins. It is desirable to provide time off from other duties for professional workers engaged in writing and editing.

Much of the material which the curriculum writers put into the bulletins and guides will be drawn from the experiences and contributions of many people. Part of the leadership responsibility of the committees is to involve large numbers of professional workers and to make the results of this participation available to the people doing the detailed writing and editorial work. The special writing activity of the curriculum editors is a specialization of function to get a job done well. It does not mean having a few people go off and dream something up in isolation from the experience of other professional workers concerned in the same field.

SUMMARY

The preparation of guide lines in various phases of the all-school program is one of the major lines of activities in curriculum programs. These guide lines serve the purpose of helping teachers and administrators do a better job of achieving the goals for which we conduct schools. They may be prepared for state-wide or specifically for local use, but should always be flexible and suggestive rather than authoritarian in character.

In appraising the contribution of any curriculum bulletin, regardless of whether it is designed for a subject field, a core program, a special topic, or some special aspect of the school program, we may use the following questions.

1. Does the bulletin indicate clearly the relationship of the special matter under consideration to the overall task of the school in modern society?
2. Does it point the way to realizing the contribution of the special phase to the all-school program?
3. Does it indicate further work which might be done in preparing more specific and detailed materials?
4. Does it give promise of functioning in the teaching itself,

whether that teaching be done in the classroom, in the community, or in the student activities life of the school?

Not all good curriculum guides need necessarily measure up in all four of these respects. But if curriculum bulletins as a whole are to make an important contribution to educational improvement, they must be viewed in their relationships to curriculum planning as a whole.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. State arguments which might be advanced for or against preparing guides or bulletins in the instructional fields and in other phases of the school program. What position do you take? Why?
2. Should such guides be prepared by local school groups as well as by state committees for use over a large area? Why? How would the purposes and features of a guide for a local group differ from those prepared for an entire state? What would be the relationship between a state guide and a local guide?
3. To what extent are content outlines desirable and necessary in guides or bulletins? What purposes should they serve? Collect several state or local bulletins in your own fields of teaching, and examine in these the relative emphasis allotted to content outlines. How would you evaluate the way these content outlines have been handled?
4. Select some topic similar to "aviation" or "conservation" which cuts across a number of instructional fields, and outline the way you would handle the preparation of a curriculum guide or bulletin for that topic.
5. Suppose you have been asked to work on a committee preparing a general curriculum guide in one of the following areas: guidance, work experience, student activities, community services. Prepare, for the analysis and criticism of other members of the committee, the statement on "Purposes of ——— in the school program; its relation to all-school objectives."
6. To what extent do you think students and lay people should be involved in the preparation of guides in the nonclassroom phases of the school program? What contributions might these groups make? What would be the values, if any, of such participation?

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIFIC TEACHING-LEARNING AIDS

Guide lines in the subject fields or in the common learnings program point general directions and emphasize overall problems such as scope and sequence. They may also include specific teaching suggestions organized around "topics," "problems," "units." But any subject field guide which includes such specific helps becomes so bulky and detailed that it fails to serve the functions for which it was intended—to point general directions and show the relationship of that field to the all-school program. It becomes necessary, therefore, to accompany the general subject fields guides with bulletins rich in suggestions of materials and activities for the classroom teacher on the job. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the problems and techniques involved in the preparation of specific teaching-learning aids.

Such aids are designed to help classroom teachers prepare for their teaching activities. Teachers who do much of the "working-together" kind of planning with their students need these aids as a basis for pre-planning fully as much as do teachers who want everything set in advance and do little planning with their students. The use of these aids, therefore, does not in itself become a means of differentiating between "progressive" and "traditional" teachers, whatever those badly abused terms may happen to mean.

Frequently, collections on paper of suggestions for teaching organized around specific topics are spoken of as "units." But this is certainly not the only way that the term "unit" is used. The use of this term has long irritated and confused curriculum theorists, who like to insist that the "unit" is developed psychologically in the pupil as a means of integration and who object to using that same term to mean a collection of things on paper. But usage has rather generally established the term "unit" to mean either the actual experience of

the students in the classroom, or the preplanning materials used in getting ready for that experience, or the written record of a group learning experience. It is not necessary to attempt to clothe the term "unit" with some mystical significance or to attempt highly sophisticated verbal definitions.

But there is another and perhaps more fundamental objection to the term "unit," not as applied to teaching aids, but as applied generally. It is that many people have identified "units" with chunks of subject matter or content set out to be "learned"—that is, memorized—by the students. This reflects itself in statements that a group of students has "had" a unit in community health, just as we might say that they "had" a course in algebra or economics. This unfortunate slant on the term, however, need not keep us from making use of the term itself. To avoid such difficulties, it might be better to change the term from "unit" to "guide" and speak of "resource guides" and "teaching guides." This change would cut out the mystical searching for the true essence of unity and also avoid the unfortunate connotations of "unit" as a fancy name for a block of subject matter set out to be learned or memorized. But changing the term now may cause more confusion in another direction.

There are two types of preplanning aids: teaching units and resource units. The teaching unit is a specific lesson plan. It contains detailed statements of what the teacher and the students will do. For example, a teaching unit on farm life might contain the statement that the teacher will open the classroom activity with a film, "Animals on the Farm." It would contain a list of questions which the teacher would use to guide pupil discussion after the showing of the film. It would include specific leads to further activities, such as visiting a farm, or asking the children to look up various farm animals in a children's encyclopedia. In other words, it is an advance guide to the teacher's and the student's activities—not what they might be, but what, barring unforeseen developments, they actually will be.

A teaching unit may be prepared by one teacher for another teacher or for a group of teachers. Usually it is prepared by a teacher for his or her own use. The teacher may write down the specific plans or may simply carry them in his head. The written expression of them may be informal and casual, consisting of a few headings

jotted down on note paper to be kept in a convenient place on the teacher's desk. Or they may be written up as formal lesson plans, similar to the ones required in the supervisory techniques of some school systems.

The materials for a teaching unit may come from a number of sources. Perhaps the teacher will sit down and write them "out of his head"—his memory of materials he has read about, of activities his students have used in the past. He may ask other teachers for suggestions. He may consult textbooks. Or he may go to a resource unit, which is the second type of preplanning aid previously mentioned.

DEFINITION AND NATURE OF RESOURCE UNITS

This term, and the type of material to which it applies, grew up in the early workshops of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. Curriculum consultants from the staff of the Eight-Year Study made frequent visits to the participating schools. They urged pupil-teacher planning and the exploration of student needs and interests. The participating teachers felt a need for specific guides to the pupil-teacher planning process. When they came to the summer workshops of the Eight-Year Study, they wanted to get something down on paper for their work in the classrooms the following fall. Out of this evolved the preparation of what was then known as a source unit, which later came to be called a resource unit.

The basic idea back of a resource unit is very simple and lends itself but little to sophisticated complexities. It is just that all teachers need help in getting ready to teach their classes and that it is better for them to go to a rich variety of suggestions than to pick up skimpy ones. A collection of such suggested activities and materials organized around a given topic then becomes a "source" or a "resource," and our fondness for the term "unit" made it practically inevitable that such a collection become known as a "resource unit." A resource unit, then, is simply a collection of suggested learning activities and materials organized around a given topic to be used as a basis for a teacher's preplanning.

Of course, teacher preplanning should be carried on as preparatory to pupil-teacher planning in the classroom. (See pages 200–203.) Good coöperative planning depends on good teacher pre-

planning; good teacher preplanning depends on good sources, or resources—that is, on good resource units. For these reasons the resource unit has become identified as a major tool in the achievement of the goals of democratic education.

The idea of preparing any preplanning material was rather new to many secondary teachers. Elementary teachers had been doing this sort of thing for many years, and the preparation of “units” had long been a major activity in elementary-school teacher training institutions. These units, however, ran more along the line of the specific lesson plan or teaching unit type. Because of the confusion which grew out of this conflicting and overlapping terminology, the promoters of resource units began to insist upon drawing a sharp distinction between resource units and teaching units. The distinctions usually ran along three lines.

First, a resource unit was supposed to be one organized around a broad area of pupil needs or problems, such as “health.” A teaching unit usually centered around a more specific aspect, such as “our local water supply.” The point was made, therefore, that a resource unit was much broader and more comprehensive than a teaching unit, and that many teaching units might be developed from a single resource unit.

Second, a teaching unit might consist of only a limited number of suggestions—let us say for opening up a unit on farm life. A resource unit should contain many suggestions. It was emphasized that a resource unit had to be used selectively and with discrimination, whereas anybody could pick up a teaching unit and use it as a rule of thumb.

Third, a teaching unit might contain specific materials on paper to be put into the hands of students, similar to the bibliographies and directions found in college syllabi. But a resource unit was designed for teacher preplanning only. Much stress was laid on the fact that it was designed for teacher use and not as a text for students. Materials on paper for students might grow out of an activity suggested in the resource unit, but the resource unit itself was to be kept out of students’ hands. This might indicate that a resource unit suggests forbidden literature, reserved only to members of the teaching caste, although this idea was certainly far from the minds of resource unit promoters. Their sole concern was to avoid unselective, uncritical, and indiscriminating use of the materials by teachers. That their

fears were not unfounded developed later when a printed series of resource units on social problems was used more for student texts than for teacher preplanning!

It can readily be seen that it is sometimes very difficult to distinguish between a resource unit and a teaching unit, especially if the resource unit is skimpy and the teaching unit elaborate. This difficulty leads to questions concerning how many activities have to be listed in order to get a certain manuscript to qualify as a resource unit. Such questions are pointless, since there is no inherent virtue in one kind of unit as against another kind, but they are bound to arise when we try to draw too fine distinctions. Probably we are better off to say that a clearly recognizable resource unit differs from a clearly recognizable teaching unit in the number and variety of suggested activities and materials and in the degree to which it calls for selective use. But this applies to clearly recognizable resource and teaching units. There are many units on paper which would be very difficult to classify precisely, and there is little purpose in trying to make such precise classifications.

Perhaps it might be better to call all general preplanning materials resource units and to drop the term "teaching unit" altogether. Specific and detailed notes for the classroom guidance of the teacher could then be called lesson plans. This change might be managed and would certainly dispense with a great deal of unnecessary and confusing distinction.

Application of the Resource Unit Idea to All Teaching Fields

Some people think of the resource unit idea as applicable to social studies only. This impression comes from the fact that resource units were first used in that field and have probably had their most extensive use there up to the present time. But since a resource unit is essentially a collection of suggested activities and materials organized around a topic, the idea is applicable to any teaching field involving the carrying on of activities and the use of materials. This is another way of saying that the resource unit idea applies to all teaching fields—common learnings, social studies, language arts, mathematics, industrial arts, business, and so on.

On the other hand, it becomes difficult sometimes to think of a given resource unit as applying to one field only. Most resource units contain suggestions of activities and materials cutting across many

fields. Take, for example, a resource unit on housing, in which the activities and materials might be used in science classes and in language classes and so on, as well as in social studies, social problems, or core classes.

Relationship Between Resource Unit Titles and Teaching Unit Titles

The question sometimes comes up concerning the applicability of the resource unit idea to the "skill" subjects as contrasted with the "content" subjects. Teachers in English, mathematics, and so on point out that they don't have "units" on fractions, percentage, or letter writing, as such, in their classes. To deal with this question it is necessary to face the relationship between resource unit titles and the titles of teaching units or of the organized learning experiences which grow out of them.

It is neither necessary nor expedient that there be a one-to-one correspondence between the titles of resource units and those of their related teaching units. That is, a teacher who draws activities and materials from a resource unit on "public health" will not necessarily have a classroom learning experience under that title. He may want to use them in a classroom learning experience entitled "community living" or "water supply protection" or "city government." In fact, a good resource unit contains leads to a wide variety of possible teaching units or accompanying learning experiences.

We may, then, have resource units entitled "fractions," "percentage," "creative dramatics," "letter writing," and the like, even though we never have classroom learning experiences under those headings. A resource unit may contain suggested activities and materials in relation to fractions, but the teacher may use these in a variety of learning situations. We can therefore use resource units for preplanning guides in the skill subjects as well as in the so-called content subjects. More and more we may move in the direction of breaking down the somewhat artificial distinction between skill and content subjects, but so long as we hold to this distinction, we must recognize that resource unit preplanning applies to both types.

Comprehensiveness of Resource Unit Titles

In general, resource units deal with fairly broad areas or topics. But it is unwise to insist upon this distinction. To do so may lead teachers to spend much time worrying about whether or not a topic

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Comprehensiveness of Resource Unit Titles

In general, resource units deal with fairly broad areas or topics. But it is unwise to insist upon this distinction. To do so may lead teachers to spend much time worrying about whether or not a topic

they are interested in is sufficiently broad for resource unit treatment. It is better to assume that it is and to get to work.

Here, for example, are titles of resource units chosen at random from those which came into the state office of the Wisconsin Co-operative Educational Planning Program:

The economic development of the United States.
Listening—a phase of the language arts.
Oral communication.
Written expression.
Subtraction.
Counting, reading, writing of numbers.
History of aviation.
Latin.
Life among Japanese children.
Building international understanding.
Our relationship with Great Britain.
Foods—today and tomorrow.
What have the various European cultures contributed to the development of Wisconsin?
Hustling heritage—a handbook of suggestions for teaching Wisconsin history.
Know your Wisconsin.¹

So while it is possible to say that resource unit titles and areas should be broader and more comprehensive than those of teaching units, it is impossible to draw a precise line between them. Too much stress upon such theoretical distinctions in a curriculum program may serve only to frustrate and discourage the participants.

Grade Level Coverage of Particular Resource Units

Curriculum workers face the question whether resource units might be designated for particular grade levels. Ideally a resource unit should contain a wide range of activities and materials from the most simple to the most complex. The teacher in preplanning could then select those most applicable to the individual students in his group. Furthermore, we recognize that grade levels are fictitious for the most part anyway, and that in a sixth-grade class, for example, we often find students with reading grade levels from third to tenth.

¹ Supplied by Charles Walden, State Curriculum Coördinator, Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction.

But a resource unit aimed at all levels in that fashion would need to have a good number of activities appropriate at all levels. This would make a resource unit a thick, bulky document. From a practical standpoint, therefore, it is wise to have a particular level in mind for a given resource unit. Most of the activities can apply to the level in mind, with fewer and fewer toward the upper and lower levels. In this sense it becomes desirable to speak of a resource unit "for the fifth-grade U.S. history course." Or if we don't want to get narrowed down too definitely to one grade, we might aim resource units at "primary grades," "upper elementary," "junior high," "senior high."

STRUCTURE AND CONTENT OF RESOURCE UNITS

The structure of resource units described here has been found useful. It cannot be emphasized too often that there is nothing sacred, however, about any particular type of resource unit organization. Overemphasis of details of organization or editorial arrangement for resource units in a curriculum program will direct the attention of participants to externals and nonessentials. The most important question to ask about any resource unit is not whether it conforms to a particular form, but whether it gives promise of helping teachers do a good job of preplanning for their teaching.

Here is a common pattern for resource unit structure.

- I. Significance of the area.
- II. Possible learning outcomes in the area.
- III. Content outline (suggested problems) in the area.
- IV. Suggested activities.
- V. Suggested materials.
- VI. Suggested evaluation procedures.

Only the sections on activities and materials are really necessary. The other sections usually found in resource units, however, are desirable and serve some useful and important purposes.

Significance of the Area

The purpose of this section is to tie a particular resource unit back into the overall framework of educational philosophy—the task of the school. To the extent that it is necessary, this section helps to maintain unity and cohesiveness in the total school program.

Notice the variety of approaches used in this section in the following examples:

Health (elementary). Health has been defined as 'the quality of life that renders the individual fit to live most and serve best.' Good health is a definite need of every individual. The school program, therefore, must be arranged to protect and improve the physical, mental, and emotional health of every child. The school's efforts are effective to the extent to which it helps the child understand the importance of establishing good health habits and make these desirable habits a part of the child's daily living. The health of children is not affected by what they know about health but by what they do about it. The ways and means and procedures used in learning what constitutes good health should result in more effective living among pupils. This knowledge should result in the improved health of the children and the community.²

What have the various European cultures contributed to the development of Wisconsin? Wisconsin, today, consists of a diversity of cultures. Within our state are old stock Americans, first and second generation Americans from immigrant stocks, and various immigrants who have recently arrived from their ancestral land and are in the process of being transformed into Americans. . . .

In spite of a diversity of cultures or nationalities with its resultant varied aptitudes, temperaments, prejudices, and superiorities, Wisconsin has become one unified commonwealth. Each immigrant group brought with it a set of ideals, values, and traditions which added up to a culture. Understood and appreciated, these contributions can form the bulwarks of a democracy and in the case of Wisconsin, elevate her to a hegemony in the family of states.

Our own state of Wisconsin can furnish an excellent study designed to have our young people appreciate, understand, and accept the other color, nationality, or religion. The young child is not a bigot. He does not question the race, color, or religion of his playmates. But by the time he reaches the second or third grade the taboos of the adults about him may start him name-calling against unfavored groups and by the time he reaches the eighth grade, he has all the basic prejudices of the adult world. Prejudices are not inherited but are learned. Whom we learn to like or dislike, love or hate, depends on our experiences in our home,

² La Crosse (Wisconsin) Public Schools, *Some Phases of Health Teaching in the Elementary Grades, Kindergarten Through Grade Six* (Resource Unit No. 12, September, 1946), p. 1.

school and neighborhood. Just as prejudice is learned, so can appreciation and understanding of the worth of each person be learned.³

Listening. One way of developing understandings in a democracy is through the use of group discussions, the radio, and the motion picture. The speaking-listening used in these activities is a two-fold skill, and its purpose is oral communication. Oral communication is essential to the higher kind of cooperative society we want. That is our greatest incentive to be good speakers and listeners. We are all listeners and some of us are speakers. In a democracy the listening as well as the speaking should be intelligent.

Any modern school-wide program in communication must stress literate listening and speaking as well as literate reading and writing. . . . The skill of listening alertly and 'getting it straight the first time' has been very important in military life. It is equally important in school, industry, business, government, community life, and family life. All human relations depend upon it. . . . Books and print will always be important. But today radio and motion pictures are taking over many of the functions that belong to print, as the invention of the printing press made us dependent upon the printed word rather than the spoken word. . . .

Listening is not the same as hearing. It is giving attention to what you hear, with real thinking about what is being said. Every child should learn to listen attentively, sympathetically, alertly, and critically. To be of any value the listening must be based on understanding and meaning.⁴

Economic development of the United States. Today, more than ever before since the beginning of American democracy, our system of government is being put to a severe test. The vast majority of the people of the world are not a part of any democratic system as we understand democracy. Many of the peoples of the world have never had the privilege of self-expression, and have never been a part of the solution of the problems of the whole people. Democracy as we know it is of slow development, dependent on the development of attitudes and performances of people. The people of the world who are socially, economically, and politically backward become discouraged and disillusioned, and are prone to accept diverse ideologies entirely foreign to our concept of democracy which accents the rights and dignity of the individual. We in the

³ Carmen W. Lucas, *What Have the Various European Cultures Contributed to the Development of Wisconsin?*² (State Curriculum Workshop, University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1946), p. 1.

⁴ Alice M. Gordon, *Listening a Phase of the Language Arts* (State Curriculum Workshop, University of Wisconsin, Madison, August 13, 1945).

United States, and the people of other democratic countries are faced with the challenge of proving by example that the democratic system can work. Before we can expect the rest of the world to accept leadership from us, we must put our own economic house in order. The challenge is to each individual. In a democracy the group can be successful to the extent that the individuals within the group are aware of the problems of the group, are aware of the facts essential to the solution of those problems, and are willing to participate actively in the solution of those problems in a scientific manner for the benefit of the whole group.⁵

Setting down on paper the connection between a given resource unit area and the general philosophy of the school helps to emphasize this connection, in the minds not only of those using the unit, but of those preparing it. It is, of course, entirely possible that this connection may be understood without having it put down on paper. That is why this section is referred to as a desirable, but not as a crucial or necessary, part of resource unit outline and structure.

Possible Learning Outcomes in the Area

This is the place for the listing of detailed objectives. General statements of philosophy or principles for the school as a whole or even for the subject fields should not be weighted down with long lists. But since each resource unit deals only with one area, it is possible to go into some detail and yet not get too bulky or overwhelming a document. So if you have people in your curriculum program who like to write long and detailed lists of objectives, turn them loose on resource units and keep them away from more generalized curriculum publications!

The threefold division of objectives into understandings, attitudes, and skills seems adequate for most purposes.

It should be emphasized that the listing of objectives here is for preplanning purposes only. They suggest possibilities which may be used by the teacher in pupil-teacher planning in the classroom. As worked out by a teacher and a group of students, the objectives for a particular unit of work represent a selection from or a modification of those suggested in one or more resource units which the teacher may have used.

⁵ Lloyd E. MacPhail, *The Economic Development of the United States* (East High School, Green Bay, Wisconsin), p. 1.

The following samples of objectives are drawn from various teacher-made resource units.

A. Attitudes:

1. Development of an attitude of appreciation of the contribution other peoples and groups have made to American life and culture.
2. Development of an attitude of appreciation of the needs, sufferings, and desires of the peoples of other countries.
3. Development of an attitude of the responsibility of the United States as a world leader to make the world a better place for all of us to live in. . . .
4. Development of an attitude of one's responsibility as an individual to help develop the kind of policy our country should follow. . . .
5. Development of an attitude of getting at the truth, the real meaning of events, etc. and being less influenced by nationalistic slogans.
6. Development of an attitude of confidence that wars can be prevented.

B. Understandings:

1. That our country with its varied cultural background and pattern has a real responsibility to solve its internal problems of group living. . . .
2. That only as all men everywhere, regardless of race, creed, or color are free and at peace can we be free and at peace.
3. That public policy is the logical extension of the philosophy which governs the behavior of the individual in the society in which the individual lives.
4. That we really live in 'one world'—with common needs and hence a common attack must be made upon its problems. That we cannot exist as an island of prosperity in a world of chaos.
5. That unlimited national sovereignty is incompatible with international cooperation.
6. Of the causes and results of wars—and that peace is more than the absence of war.
7. That peace is really the aim of many peoples in many countries, that we are not the only well-intentioned people in the world.
8. That planning on a regional, national, and world scale will be necessary if we are to maintain peace.

C. Skills:

1. That of knowing and using resources of all kinds.
2. That of finding the facts—distinguishing between fact and opinion.

3. That of analyzing and then interpreting the evidence on a given issue.
4. The ability and willingness to form conclusions.
5. The ability to participate in general group discussion.⁶

Notice now how the form of the following "understandings" differs from that in the previous list. The student should understand:

1. The terminology of the unit.
2. The many changes which have taken place in our economic system from colonial times to the present.
3. The situations which gave great impetus to industry and agriculture in 1800, 1860, 1914, 1942.
4. The extent of our resources at home and the problems which have resulted from our search for resources and markets abroad.
5. The conditions which made big business possible.
6. The conditions which made labor consolidation necessary.
7. The conditions which confronted the farmers of the country in the 1880's and the 1930's.
8. The extent to which the government (the people) has become involved with business, labor, and agriculture.
9. The apparent trends with regard to the government's relations with business, labor, and agriculture: the rise of the common man; international trade problems, etc.⁷

The foregoing are stated as areas of study in the unit on international understanding; however, the understandings are stated as generalizations. For example, "That only as all men everywhere, regardless of race, creed, or color are free and at peace can we be free and at peace." Some would object to this as a predeterminer of conclusions which the student should arrive at for himself. It is doubtful whether stating understandings as generalizations really hurts the student's learning any. On the other hand, it is perhaps impractical to try to state everything in generalization form. Putting an understanding in the form of an area of study avoids the difficulty of stating concrete generalizations and also the censure of predetermining the conclusions for the student.

In another resource unit, on recreation and morale, the authors listed areas of understanding first and then added a list of generali-

⁶ Bernice M. Scott, *Building International Understanding* (Sheboygan, Wisconsin, Public Schools, August, 1946).

⁷ Lloyd E. MacPhail, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

zations for "illustrative" purposes.⁸ This list serves the purpose of making the objectives concrete without running into the danger of dictating the students' conclusions.

In a resource unit on aviation study in the elementary school the authors avoided the threefold category of understandings, attitudes, and skills and simply listed the learnings in order. Many points begin with some such term as "appreciation of" or "understanding of," but it is difficult to distinguish among these, and it is doubtful whether this differentiation was worth the effort.

1. An appreciation of the efforts of those who pioneered in the development of aviation.
2. A realization that the growth of aviation has been a long process to which generations of people have contributed.
3. A realization of the fact that the progress of man through the ages has been promoted by successive ideas from many minds.
4. An appreciation of the experiments of the Wright brothers as a stimulation to the future possibilities of air travel.
5. An appreciation of some of the benefits of air transportation to business and civilian life.
6. An appreciation of the efforts of our federal government to eliminate the hazards and dangers of aviation.
7. An understanding of the importance of radio and radar in extending the possibilities of air travel.
8. An understanding of the important work of the Weather Bureau in relation to aviation.
9. An awareness of the importance of the daily weather forecasts in the newspapers and on the radio.
10. A greater appreciation of the work of scientists and people who study the atmosphere.
11. To develop the ability to read maps relating to the air age.
12. To be able to show and explain ways in which the airplane may change the world socially, economically, and geographically.
13. To develop an understanding of the possible influences of aviation on the cultures of people.
14. To develop an understanding of the need for cooperation among people living in a world community.

⁸ Jesse F. Steiner and Chester D. Babcock, *Recreation and Morale*, Problems in American Life Series, Unit No. 4, National Association of Secondary School Principals and National Council for the Social Studies (National Education Association, Washington, 1942).

15. An insight into the various occupations involved in carrying on aviation.
16. A knowledge of the many workers whose efficiency helps to promote the success of aviation.
17. To develop broader reading interests concerning implications of global geography.
18. To recognize some of the problems brought about by aviation.⁹

Sometimes the list of learning outcomes may contain technical vocabulary important in the area. For example, a resource unit in Roman life, designed for use in Latin classes, contains the following list of "certain words connected with Roman life":

toga, tunica, lacerna, solea, calceus, cursus honorum, prerogatio, altercatio, discessio, spina cavea, metae, carceres, blanea, thermae, venatio, sparsiones, comitia tributa, comitia centuriata, prensatio, ambitio, pontifex maximus, augures, conclamatio, imago, stola, palla, flammeum, pronuba, deductio, atrium, tablinum, peristylum, cubicula.¹⁰

Such lists may also be found in resource units in the biological and physical sciences, in the industrial arts, in music, and in other areas with specialized vocabularies.

The stating of learning outcomes always brings up the question of behavioral objectives. Some insist that understandings are purely passive and not behavioral; therefore they should not be included in resource units. This usually brings the retort that understandings represent behavior, but not external behavior, and the controversy goes off into a confusing spiral of technical distinctions. Opponents of understandings insist, however, that attitudes and skills may be considered behavioral.

If you want to be really technical, though, you can make out a pretty good case that attitudes and skills are just as passive and non-behavioral as understandings. After all, the final test is some kind of action. Mere possession of a fine point of view or the ability to do something can become sterile if we never put our point of view into practice or do the thing in which we have the ability.

From this standpoint it becomes much more valid to state be-

⁹ Committee on Aviation, Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, *Aviation Study in the Elementary School*.

¹⁰ Wisconsin Statewide Latin Committee, *A Latin Resource Unit* (mimeographed), p. 2.

haviors directly without breaking them down into understandings, attitudes, and skills. Then we may go on and identify the major understandings, attitudes, and skills related to the particular behavior or group of behaviors we have in mind. Take for example this section from the previously cited resource unit on the economic development of the United States:

As a result of the experiences gained in the pursuit of this and other units of the course, the student should develop a behavior pattern in which he will

1. make serious effort to study the effects of our economic development on our society.
2. express tolerant ideas on the controversial questions he will encounter in the work.
3. apply the belief that the past does aid in explaining the present by looking for bases (historical) for present day problems.
4. make tentative conclusions only after the facts have been gathered and thoroughly considered.
5. willingly subordinate his own self-interest in favor of group benefit.
6. participate voluntarily and conscientiously in class activity in pursuit of the problems at hand.
7. indicate a more active interest in the school, the community, the nation, and the world as a result of the development of the democratic point of view.¹¹

For a person to practice the behavior of "making tentative conclusions only after the facts have been gathered and thoroughly considered" calls for an understanding of the thinking process, the attitude of suspended judgment, and the skill of recognizing pertinent and significant facts.

Content Outline or List of Problems in the Area

The purpose of this section is to establish the further definition and the scope of the area covered in a particular resource unit. This purpose may be accomplished either by a straight content, or structural, outline or by a listing of major problems, questions, or issues. The former approach has the danger of suggesting to some teachers a body of content they must "cover." Listings of problems certainly give much more appearance of flexibility and probably suggest more

¹¹ Lloyd E. MacPhail, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

directly their use as a preplanning guide to pupil-teacher planning. In some cases it may be desirable to use both types.

The content outline also helps a subject-matter-minded teacher gain a sense of security in preplanning. It provides a basis whereby he can check to see that no significant items are being passed over without adequate consideration in the planning process. Nor does this mean that the teacher simply has to "get it all in." In this sense the content outline makes a contribution to the comprehensiveness and balance stressed by some curriculum leaders.

Content outlines may vary in detail and complexity. Notice this very simple and direct one taken from an elementary health resource unit:

- A. Cleanliness
 - 1. Body
 - a. Hands
 - b. Teeth
 - c. Mouth
 - d. Nose
 - e. Ears
 - f. Eyes
 - 2. Clothing
 - 3. Food and drink
 - 4. Environmental
 - a. Home
 - b. School
 - c. Community
- B. Nutrition
 - 1. Eating habits
 - 2. Selection and utilization of food
- C. Safety
 - 1. Safety at home
 - 2. Safety at school
 - a. In the classroom
 - b. On the playground
 - 3. Safety on the street and highway¹²

On the other hand, this outline of the economic development of the United States provides more detailed analysis:

¹² La Crosse (Wisconsin) Public Schools, *op. cit.*

- A. The Napoleonic Wars—the first great stimulation to American production (1800–1816)
 - 1. Effects of this period on
 - a. Foreign and domestic markets
 - b. Number of business units
 - c. Variety of production
 - d. Sectional dependence and rivalry
 - 2. Type of—size of business units
 - 3. Employer-employee relationships
 - 4. Government relations with producer and investor
 - a. Tariff policy of 1816
 - b. Banking Act of 1816
 - 5. Basic inventions of the period
- B. The Civil War—the second great stimulation to American production
- C. The Period of Business Consolidation—"Big Business" from about 1870 to 1947
- D. Labor and Labor Organization (1790–1947)
- E. The American Farmer and His Problems since 1860
- F. International Aspects of the Economic Development of Nations
 - 1. World economic problems
 - a. Equitable distribution of resources and products
 - b. Equitable distribution of world buying power
 - c. Removal of trade barriers (trade agreements)
 - d. Realization of economic dependence of nations
 - e. Economic reconstruction of devastated areas by solvent nations
 - f. Universal labor recognition and labor standards, etc.
 - 2. Agencies in serious study of world economic problems
 - a. Economic and Social Council of the U.S.
 - b. National Planning Association, Washington
 - c. World Citizen Association, Chicago, Ill.
 - d. League for Industrial Democracy, N.Y.
 - e. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, New York
 - f. Food and Agriculture Association, U.N.O.
 - g. Etc.¹³

This same resource unit has in addition a list of problems and questions in the area. Teachers using it may then take their choice as to

¹³ Lloyd E. MacPhail, *op. cit.*, pp. 5, 6, 7.

the type of preplanning coverage they like best to use, or they may use parts of both.

Here is an example of a rather direct question-type outline:

1. How did man's urge to fly show itself, and how was this urge to fly expedited?
2. What did the early experiments with balloons, dirigibles, autogiros, gliders, and other flying machines contribute to aviation?
3. How did the heavier-than-air craft experiments advance aviation?
4. How did World War I further encourage the development of aviation?
5. How was the experimental air-mail service important in the development of aviation?
6. What factors caused the establishment and growth of airlines?
7. What historic flights contributed to the advancement of aviation?¹⁴

The following outline in a resource unit on international understanding emphasizes problems in the area.

Some problems facing the world in its struggle for peace.

1. How can countries with such conflicting economic, political, and social ideologies as Great Britain, U.S.S.R. and United States work together for peace?
2. How can national policies of restricted immigration be reconciled with the needs of the millions of homeless peoples in the world?
3. What is to be the future of the 'backward' peoples of the world? Is this to be handled on a national or an international basis?
4. How are the world's resources to be distributed and controlled to attain a greater degree of economic security for all peoples?
5. How can the conflicting theories of national sovereignty and international order be reconciled?
6. How can the rights of small nations be protected in a world dominated by big powers who possess the power of veto?¹⁵

In some cases it may be helpful to suggest a number of detailed questions under the large problem headings, as in the following section taken from a resource unit on health:

1. How can I improve my appearance?
 - a. How does posture affect my health?
 - b. How can I control (increase or decrease) my weight?

¹⁴ Walter Speerschneider, *The History of Aviation: A Resource Unit* (De Pere, Wisconsin, Public Schools).

¹⁵ Bernice L. Scott, *op. cit.*

- c. What effect does the food I eat have on my appearance?
- d. How can I improve my complexion?
- e. Why do I get so tired?
- f. Why do so many high school students have black-heads, pimples, or acne?¹⁶

The down-to-earth character of these questions suggests that they may have been drawn from students during some previous planning experience. This provides one way of continuously enriching our resource units. The outline of questions we plan with one class can go into the resource unit as a basis for preplanning with future classes.

Suggested Activities

Here we come to what many teachers speak of as the heart of the resource unit. The suggested activities help teachers get into the "doing" stage of teaching. Planning activities with students becomes one of the most rewarding phases of any teaching situation. And this planning becomes more interesting and exciting to carry on if the teacher has plenty of good ideas to suggest to the students in his classes.

It has become customary to speak of activities as "introductory," "developmental," and "culminating." This threefold division is certainly not necessary, but has often been found helpful. Of course, if these terms get in the way of the work by producing needless confusion and hair-splitting definition, they should be dropped. But let us at this point examine their good possibilities.

Introductory Activities or Approaches. These set the stage for group experience. They serve the purpose of activating interest, arousing awareness, and opening up possibilities. In many cases they are directly suggested by the teacher, or they may even be used by the teacher as a kickoff device without previous planning with the class.

Types of introductory activities are illustrated by the following, derived from the resource unit *The Health of a Nation*:

¹⁶ Michael M. Davis and Bernhard J. Stern, with teaching aids by Lavone A. Hanna, *The Health of a Nation: Making and Keeping Americans Well*, Problems in American Life Series, Unit No. 17, National Association of Secondary School Principals and National Council for the Social Studies (National Education Association, Washington, 1943), p. 64.

pre-tests and follow-up discussion
motion pictures
reading of local news items or current magazine articles
discussion of draft statistics on rejections for health
discussion of health examinations at beginning of school year
consideration of local health statistics
excursion to public clinic, hospital, or dairy¹⁷

In the resource unit *Know Your Wisconsin*¹⁸ are found examples of the following types of introductory activities: motion pictures, showings of prints, showings of film strips, exhibits, field trips, museum trips, use of newspaper and magazine articles, outside speakers, group discussions, recordings, folk songs, games, dances, stories. To these types we might add the reading of materials from textbooks. In fact, one of the most significant functions of a text in some of our subject fields today may be that of providing material for introductory activities or approaches.

Developmental Activities. These constitute the on-going work of the group. Naturally, it is difficult to draw a fine line between the introductory and the developmental stages of a group learning experience. But if we don't try to draw the line too fine, it is easy to see that there comes a time in the experience when we start doing the things we planned to do during the introductory phase.

There are many different kinds of developmental activities. Here is a list drawn from one bulletin:

1. Research-type activities. (Reading, interviewing, listening to the radio, seeing motion pictures and other visual aids)
2. Presentation-type activities. (Reports, panel and round-table discussions, showing of visual aids, making graphs and charts)
3. Creative expression activities. (Handwork, drawing pictures, writing stories, plays and poems, singing and playing music)
4. Drill activities. (Used when students in the group encounter obstacles to further progress. For example, a high school group working on a tax problem might find it needed review and drill of certain phases of arithmetic)

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 66-68.

¹⁸ Carmen W. Lucas for the Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, with art designs by Mayble Holland, *Know Your Wisconsin* (October, 1946), pp. 3-4.

5. Appreciation activities. (Listening to music, reading for fun, looking at picture)
6. Observation and listening activities. (Sharpening the senses of the pupils as an aid to learning)
7. Group cooperation activities. (Training in democratic group procedure, division of labor among groups leading to cooperation in carrying out plans)
8. Experimentation. (Learning to try out new ways of doing things, laboratory work, with emphasis on equipment the pupils can make as well as on more elaborate types of equipment)
9. Organizing and evaluating activities. (Discriminating among and selecting, ordering, and appraising the work done by themselves)¹⁹

This list is designed to show the possible variety of developmental activities, not to suggest an organizational framework. In some cases it may be desirable to make such a detailed breakdown, but for the most part it is simpler and more feasible just to list the activities in a total group.

In the resource unit on building international understanding, the author listed the following thirty-two developmental activities without attempting to classify them under various headings:

1. Compare the causes that have involved us in each of our major wars.
2. Prepare a debate—"Resolved: That the United States Should Have Joined the League of Nations."
3. Prepare a panel on the relation of our immigration policy in the 1920's to our foreign policy during the same period.
4. Using a globe or "air-map" to compute the distance and air routes from London, Moscow, Tokyo, and Berlin to New York, to Washington, to Chicago, to San Francisco, and to Denver.
5. Prepare a newspaper editorial or a campaign speech for the election of 1916 either praising or criticizing Wilson's policy toward Germany 1914-1916.
6. Appoint a committee to prepare an illustrated book on each of the possessions of the United States. Include their history, resources, people, living conditions, industries, government, attitude toward American rule.
7. Dramatize some of the deliberations of the Paris Peace Conference in 1919. Let a student represent each one of the "Big Four" and

¹⁹ Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, Bulletin No. 5, *Resource Units in the Curriculum Program* (State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, 1945), pp. 8-9.

- present the demands of his government concerning some of the chief issues to point up the need for an *international* solution to the world problems.
8. Make a model or a painting of the Panama Canal and then prepare a floor talk on the importance of the Canal in American foreign relations.
 9. For better orientation in the study of our policy in the Western Hemisphere, show one of the films on Latin America: "Wings Over Latin America," "Our Neighbors Down the Road," or "Americans All."
 10. Develop a panel discussion on whether or not American policy in the Caribbean has been justified.
 11. Prepare a graph showing the extent and trend of immigration to the United States by years.
 12. On a large map of the United States, indicate the areas in the United States in which the largest groups of foreign immigrants settled.
 13. Investigate the possibility of a correlation during the 19th century between the early policy of isolation of the United States and the foreign-born population of the country during that time.
 14. Collect some of the popular songs of World Wars I and II. Explain the factors that prompted their being written and then the uses made of them.
 15. Compare the treatment of enemy aliens by the United States during World War I with the treatment of similar groups during World War II. Do you think our government was justified in each case?
 16. Prepare a chart showing the costs of World Wars I and II, bringing in both material and human costs.
 17. Prepare illustrated books on the major countries of Latin America including a section on their attitude toward the United States.
 18. Draw a series of cartoons which might have appeared in a leading South American newspaper depicting their attitude toward the United States in 1825, in 1850, in 1895, in 1905, in 1915, in 1925, in 1935, in 1945.
 19. For a better understanding of the work of the State Department show the film "Uncle Sam, The Good Neighbor."
 20. Show the films "Territorial Expansion of the United States" and "Territorial Possessions" as a basis for the study of the Imperialistic tendencies of the United States in the nineteenth century.
 21. Study the problem of the Mexican-American in the United States—why they came, where they live, how we treat them,—and then show the effect of this situation on our Good Neighbor Policy.
 22. In a graph, translate into time the relative defense value of the 3000

- miles of the Atlantic Ocean at the time of (a) the Pilgrims, (b) the clipper ship, (c) the steamship, (d) the modern transport plane.
23. Make a comparison between Wilson's Fourteen Points and the Atlantic Charter.
 24. Hold a panel discussion on the question of making the Panama Canal an international waterway where it would be under international control.
 25. Prepare a floor talk on the subject—"Should the inscription on the Statue of Liberty be removed?"
 26. Study the presidential elections in which there has been a major issue of foreign policy. Determine from that whether or not our major political parties have followed a consistent foreign policy and if so, what it is.
 27. Make a chart bringing out the major differences between the League of Nations and United Nations; do the same for the major similarities.
 28. Prepare a floor talk on the foreign policies of the two Roosevelts.
 29. Compare the governments of Great Britain, the United States, the Soviet Union.
 30. Compare the culture patterns of the Soviet Union, the United States and the British Commonwealth of Nations.
 31. Select some of the leaders of present-day world affairs (Byrnes, Churchill, Molotov, etc.) and show how their personalities have affected and are affecting world peace.
 32. On a large map of the world indicate the source of the major imports of the United States.²⁰

On the other hand, the author of the teaching aids in *The Health of a Nation* did break the total number of developmental activities down into subgroups. The following subgroups were made in the section on presentation-type developmental activities:

Maps.

Charts, graphs and tables.

Panel discussions.

Reports and floor talks.

Posters and cartoons.

Written papers.

Slides and Kodak pictures.²¹

²⁰ Bernice L. Scott, *op. cit.*, pp. 6-7.

²¹ Michael M. Davis, Bernhard J. Stern, and Lavone A. Hanna, *op. cit.*, pp. 78-80.

Although the resource unit outline usually includes a section on materials, it is a good idea to make the developmental (as well as the introductory) activities as specific as possible by giving examples of materials with which they might be used. For example, instead of merely saying, "Use a motion picture for such-and-such purpose," give the names of one or two motion pictures which might actually be so used. The following are good examples of desirable practice in this connection:

A pupil or committee might look up the health work of international organizations such as the League of Nations, International Red Cross, and the International Office of Public Hygiene. The *League of Nations Yearbook* (League of Nations Association, New York City) is a good source to use. Material can also be secured by writing to the national Headquarters of the Red Cross in Washington, D.C.²²

Suggest that the students make a collection of . . . popular superstitions about health. They will find queer and strange things mentioned in:

Caldwell, *Do You Believe It?* (Doubleday Doran, 1934)

Fishbein, *Shattering Health Superstitions* (Liveright, 1930)

Haggard, *Devils Drugs and Doctors* (Harper, 1929)²³

Culminating, or Concluding, Activities. These are the activities with which a group brings its learning experience to a close. It is difficult to think of good culminating activities, and so this section of the resource unit usually contains the least material. Part of this difficulty may be due to the fact that there is no sharp line between culminating activities and developmental activities. In actual practice, some of the good developmental activities may develop into a culminating activity for a given learning experience. This means that culminating activities will sound like developmental activities, and the other way round; this leads to an impression of repetition and disturbs people engaged in resource unit writing. Perhaps it would be better to restrict the culminating activities section to those few kinds of things which are unique for this winding-up stage of a unit.

Here are three examples of interesting possibilities for the culmi-

²² *Ibid.*, pp. 74-75.

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 75.

nating activities of resource units, two on health and one on the economic development of the United States:

Health campaign in the school. The result of the school survey, discussions, and interviews may convince the pupils that a better health program is necessary. They could therefore formulate their recommendations and present them to the administration, the student body, the faculty, and the board of education. The campaign would call for the cooperative effort of pupils, faculty, and public.²⁴

Specific project for improvement of health in the community. This project would need to grow out of the study of the health needs and resources of the community and would have to be decided upon by the group. Having collected and organized their data, developed maps, graphs, tables and pictures for presenting it, the pupils could then present their findings to responsible civic groups together with recommendations for community action.²⁵

The students might survey the town to determine the products and services furnished by the town for people in other parts of the nation and the world. They should also list the items needed for good living that are produced in other parts of the nation and the world. Contact should be made with other departments of the school to find for instance the chemical or mineral content of items we use and take for granted, source of certain goods, etc. Such a project will develop realization of economic interdependence of all people, or world consciousness. The class as a whole might prepare an illustrated booklet summarizing the findings of the class. The stated understandings to be developed might serve as means of deciding what the booklet should contain. Such a booklet can be used in future years as a source of information for future teaching.²⁶

The section of culminating activities may also include suggestions for the more formal type of reviewing or testing activities.

Suggested Materials

Of course, the activities suggestions contain mention of many specific motion pictures, books, magazine articles, pamphlets, and the like. But it is also desirable in most resource units to provide a sec-

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 80.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 81.

²⁶ Lloyd E. MacPhail, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

tion on materials organized under the various important headings. Here is a check list of possibilities.

Reading materials.

Books (general books and texts)

Magazine articles.

Pamphlets.

Technical and research studies and monographs.

Novels, short stories, plays, poems.

Audio-visual aids.

Slides (35 mm. film slides, 3 × 4 glass slides)

Photographic prints.

Art and cartoon work and sketches.

Motion pictures.

Radio transcriptions.

Radio programs on direct broadcast.

Recordings (music, plays, speeches, group discussions, etc.)

Maps, charts, graphs, globes.

Community resources.

Agencies supplying reading and other materials.

Places suitable for field trips.

People who might be interviewed or brought into class for interviews and speeches.

Tools, machines, and other equipment and apparatus.

Suggestions for Evaluation

This section is found in the outline of most resource units. There is, however, no reason why evaluation activities need to be pulled out into a separate section. Since evaluation is a continual process, appropriate evaluation activities might well be distributed throughout the introductory, developmental, and culminating activities. And if we hold to the idea of evaluating growth throughout a unit experience as well as of evaluating status at the end, we need to include some evaluation activities from the very start.

In a resource unit we should list as many types of evaluation activities as possible, so as not to overlook opportunities of getting evidence on pupil growth in a wide variety of behavioral objectives. Some resource units are very complete on this point. *The Health of a Nation*, for example, contains many evaluation suggestions, organized as follows, and including sample tests and record forms:

Self appraisal records.

Health chart.

Diet chart.

Anecdotal records.

Paper-and-pencil tests.

Tests for understandings.

Health attitudes tests.

Measures of interests.

Skills and abilities.

Interpretation of data tests.

Ability to detect and analyze propaganda and logical argument.

Application of health principles.²⁷

The foregoing presentation has followed the most usual outline for resource units. It must always be kept in mind, however, that this is merely an outline that has been found convenient and useful in many cases, but is not to be applied to all cases. It is not intended as a universal pattern. No unit should be forced into a pattern not suitable to the particular problems of the area it represents.

There are many possible deviations from the pattern here presented. For example, the author of the teaching aids in *The Health of a Nation*²⁸ presented all her suggestions for materials right in the activities section and so did not provide a separate section listing materials only. The author of the resource unit on the economic development of the United States²⁹ organized his materials under two major sections, one for bibliography (holding to the strict meaning of that term!) and another for audio-visual aids. In the unit *Know Your Wisconsin*³⁰ we find an entire section devoted to art activities, with actual samples of art materials which might be used. This same unit contains a fine section on the correlation of the unit with various school subjects, such as home economics, literature, music, and physical education. The author of this unit also divided his bibliography into sections on books helpful to students in the intermediate grades, in the junior-high grades, and in the senior-high grades.

The only requirement we can make, therefore, of the outline or

²⁷ Michael M. Davis, Bernhard J. Stern, and Lavone A. Hanna, *op. cit.*, pp. 82-84.

²⁸ *Ibid.*

²⁹ Lloyd E. MacPhail, *op. cit.*

³⁰ Carmen W. Lucas, *op. cit.*

structural organization of a resource unit is that it serve adequately the functions or purposes for which that particular resource unit is made in the first place.

It should also be pointed out that a resource unit need not necessarily assume the form of a conventional page-by-page bound manuscript. Some teachers have found it more useful to keep their resource unit in the form of a card file. This makes it easy to add new ideas and suggestions and to carry out rearrangements of materials as seems desirable. The major drawback of the card system is that it restricts the use of the material to one or a few teachers. Of course, someone could always copy off the cards and get the material printed in more conventional form.

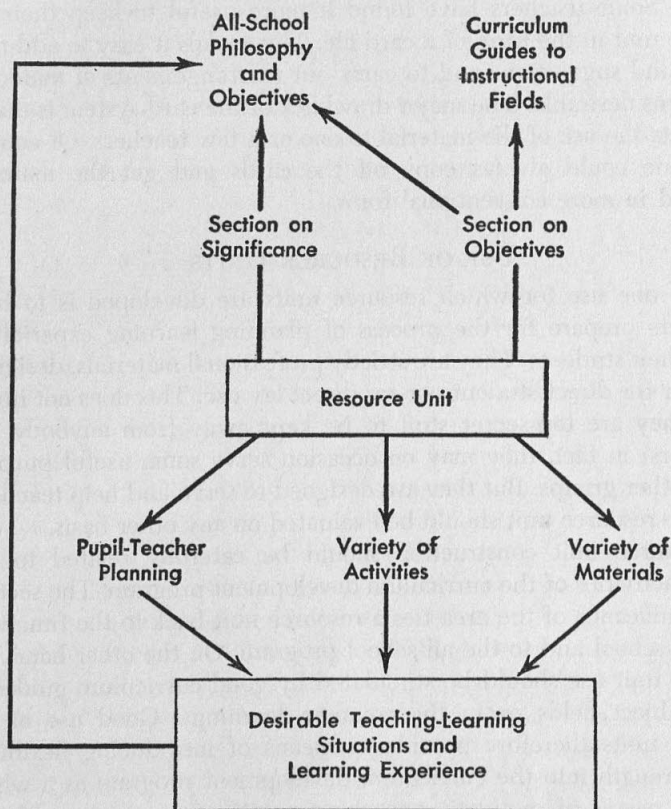
USE OF RESOURCE UNITS

The one use for which resource units are developed is to help teachers prepare for the process of planning learning experiences with their students. They are strictly professional materials, designed neither for direct student nor for direct lay use. This does not imply that they are top-secret stuff to be kept away from anybody but teachers; in fact, they may on occasion serve some useful purpose with other groups. But they are designed to serve and help teachers, and no resource unit should be evaluated on any other basis.

Resource unit construction should be carefully related to the other activities of the curriculum development program. The section on significance of the area ties a resource unit back to the functions of the school and to the all-school program. On the other hand, resource unit use should be stimulated by good curriculum guides in the subject fields or in the common learnings. Good use of resource units therefore provides a means of introducing flexibility and strength into the curriculum development program as a whole and a means of motivating teaching practices consistent with the principles of education professed. (See diagram on p. 187.)

The author of the resource unit, *Know Your Wisconsin*, inserted at the end some general suggestions for the use of the unit. Perhaps some will object to this statement and say it is too specific, but it does provide a good example of the kind of help teachers may sometimes need in order to make good use of such teaching aids:

- A. Read through carefully the significance of the area (Sec. I) and outline of the area (Sec. II).
- B. Plan a teaching unit so that it is built around some problem peculiar to the age and life of the pupils.



- C. Set up the specific objectives and generalizations for the teaching unit.
- D. Study over the possible approaches in Section IV and select the approach or approaches which will open up real possibilities for a problem.

- E. Collect the materials needed for your approach or make the necessary contacts.
- F. Collect the reading materials needed (See the Bibliography in Section IX) and become thoroughly familiar with the subject-matter they contain.
- G. Compile a list of the materials available to the pupils and post it on the bulletin board when needed.
- H. The next step should be that of actual pupil-teacher planning of the solution of a problem that has been made meaningful to the pupils because of the 'approach'.³¹

Doubtless, as teachers gain more experience with the use of resource units for preplanning, they will organize their own particular manner of using them. They may carry a good many ideas around in their heads instead of writing them down in a formal teaching unit. Every teacher has his own private method of getting ready for his teaching, and the use of resource units is not intended to interfere with it! But the alert, sensitive curriculum coördinator will also be sensitive to the needs of teachers who would welcome specific suggestions of the type presented above.³²

THE MAKING OF RESOURCE UNITS

Several groups have gone into the production of resource unit materials for general distribution. The most extensive printed series is the *Problems in American Life Series*, sponsored jointly by the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Association of Secondary School Principals. This series consists of over thirty resource units organized around such social problems as race and cultural relations, how our governments raise and spend money, the health of a nation, the American way of business, and democracy vs. dictatorship. Each pamphlet in the series consists of two parts. Part One is a summary of the facts concerning the problem itself, written by a content specialist in the area. Part Two is the actual resource unit, consisting of activities and materials set in an outline emphasizing also the significance of the topic, behavioral objectives, and content outline.

³¹ *Ibid.*

³² For an excellent presentation of the use of resource units see I. J. Quillen, *Using a Resource Unit* (National Education Association, Washington, 1942).

One of the most widely distributed and timely resource units was *Living in the Atomic Age*, prepared in the School of Education at the University of Illinois. Resource units were also emphasized very much in the state curriculum program in Wisconsin, and a number were mimeographed for distribution within the state. Excellent resource units have also been prepared in such city curriculum programs as those of Denver, Long Beach (California), Minneapolis, and Seattle.

The teachers of our country today need and could use many more resource units than are available. All educational agencies should be encouraged to develop them. National professional organizations, teacher education institutions, state departments of education, and city and county curriculum groups can work effectively and with profit in this area. State departments of public instruction might well set up special facilities not only for the production of resource units, but for the clearing of resource unit production in local school systems.

This emphasis on the production of resource units by professional groups should be coupled with an emphasis on having teachers produce some of their own resource units. Some curriculum workers insist that every teacher should at some time or other either make a resource unit or coöperate in a small-group resource unit construction activity. They point out the in-service education values of resource unit development. (This point will be further developed in Chapter VI.) But it must be recognized that no teacher can produce all the resource units he needs. Therefore, he must turn to resource units prepared by others.

Several problems come up in connection with resource unit production. One is the matter of getting ideas to put into resource units. Where do they come from? The best source, of course, is the background experience of the classroom teacher. Here is where it becomes especially valuable to have teachers with rich patterns of interest, teachers who know art, music, literature, and the like, regardless of the subject field in which they teach. Other good ideas for resource unit activities come from students. Every good learning experience turns up ideas which might well be recorded for future use. Further sparks for ideas may be derived from catalogues of motion pictures and recordings, from professional literature describ-

ing good learning experiences, and from the activities and materials sections of good, modern textbooks.

Another question which comes up in connection with resource units is the matter of trying them out. Offhand, it seems reasonable that we can evaluate a resource unit by trying it out in practice, but the issue goes back to the nature of a resource unit itself. We can try out some of the activities and materials suggested in a resource unit and on the basis of this experience either delete them, retain them, or modify them. But the resource unit itself is merely a compendium of suggestions, not a learning experience. So, while resource units are continuously modified, expanded, and the like, they cannot, as things in themselves, be evaluated by trying them out. The idea just doesn't fit the nature of resource units.

The continuous possibility of modifying a resource unit also points to the fact that a resource unit is never finished. If we are preparing one for publication, the editor pushes us to a deadline beyond which we make no further changes in the manuscript. But there are always more materials, more activities which might be added. Resource units are never static. For this reason the loose-leaf or card-index system is more consistent with resource unit realities than the bound manuscript arrangement. But regardless of the mechanical form we use, let us remember that, like the pupil-teacher planning process they are designed to help, resource units should be kept flexible and open to desirable change.

SUMMARY

There are two main types of preplanning aids: teaching units and resource units. A teaching unit is designed to serve the purpose of specific lesson planning by the teacher. Resource units provide the materials from which teaching units can be made. In the most complete definition of the term, a resource unit is a compendium of suggested activities and materials used by teachers in their preparation for pupil-teacher planning of learning experiences. Resource units therefore provide the vehicle by means of which teachers can begin applying curriculum principles in the instructional program. They should in every respect be consistent with the general objectives of the school, with the all-school program, and with the frameworks established in the subject fields and in the core curriculum, or common learnings.

SUGGESTED DISCUSSION QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a critical appraisal of the usual distinctions between resource units and teaching units. Are these distinctions important? Are they valid? To what extent would you emphasize these distinctions if you were participating in a curriculum development program? Why?
2. Do you agree that all teachers at some time should take part in a resource unit writing group? If you think all teachers should take part, what do you think are the values in this experience? If you don't think so, state any other techniques which you think more applicable to the needs of teachers, and list the values which you think grow out of these activities.
3. To what extent do you agree with the statement that the activities are the heart of the resource unit? Why? What functions do you see for other sections of the resource unit?
4. What possible modifications might you propose, in the case of particular resource unit topics, for the resource unit outline given on page 165?
5. Sometimes it is a good experience for a large group to sketch out a resource unit together, with a leader-chairman writing the suggestions on a blackboard. Perhaps your class or study group might like to try this. Select some topic or problem area in which you all have some interest and background. Keep in mind that you are not finishing a resource unit, but merely sketching out examples under each of the major headings.

»» VI ««

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND THE TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS

Curriculum development comes alive in teaching. Preparation of materials and discussion of educational issues exist for the purpose of inspiring, guiding, and aiding teachers to carry out their jobs. Better teaching is the aim of all curriculum activity. Since we can never exhaust all the possibilities of improving teaching, it follows that curriculum development is a continuous process.

Good teaching is in turn related back to the other phases of curriculum development, particularly that of defining educational principles and objectives. It is necessary, therefore, in every curriculum program to consider carefully what good teaching means and to use those curriculum development activities which seem most likely to promote it. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the characteristics of good teaching and to see their relation to curriculum development in general. It is designed to serve as a basis for examination of teaching aids and of general bulletins or guides to the instructional fields and other aspects of the all-school program.

THE PROBLEM OF DEFINING GOOD TEACHING

Much educational controversy has centered about the nature of good teaching. As is usually the case, the controversy has led to enthusiastic championing of extreme positions.

On one hand we have the "educationist" who sees teaching primarily if not entirely as a problem in methods, if not "the" method. Backed up by experimentation in educational psychology, the extremist of this viewpoint spends much of his time attacking formal discipline, often getting it confused with transfer of learning. Without too much consistency he has also attacked emphasis on content. He has succeeded in getting control of policies in many institutions

for teacher education and takes his stand on the idea that it is how you teach, not what you teach, that is important. He has succeeded also in antagonizing his colleagues, the content specialists, driving them into rationalizations of their own extreme and equally untenable positions. He speaks of this method and that method as though they were sharply distinct and separate.

The method extremist finds his match on the other side. Content enthusiasts declare that teaching consists entirely in "knowing your subject," helped to some degree by the mysterious effect of the teacher's "personality." They point to the great teachers of all the ages who carried on their trade without benefit of "methods" in the teachers' colleges. They share the conviction that good teachers are born, not made. They ridicule the latest educational "fads" and point out that method extremists are always jumping from one cure-all to another.

Method extremists and "know-your-subject" extremists find a common battleground on the issue of lecturing. For some reason there is no one way of teaching which has so generally incurred the scorn and displeasure of "methodologists" as that which consists of telling something by means of oral communication. But the "know-your-subject" people often rise to the defense of lecturing and espouse its cause with equal devotion. This controversy about lecturing symbolizes the barren character of much of this controversy about "methods."

Another expression of the same divergence in viewpoint is the question whether teaching is a science or an art. The question in this form seems to be pretty well resolved in most people's minds as follows: that teaching is an art, the characteristics of which are based in part on the use of materials from philosophy plus materials from the basic sciences, particularly psychology, sociology, and biology. In this sense it is analogous to the practice of medicine, admittedly an art, based also on materials from scientific bodies of knowledge.

Let us consider, then, what the teaching-learning process becomes in the light of a philosophy which insists that experience is unitary, not fragmented. What a child learns as the result of his activity in a group learning situation comes from all aspects of that situation. The child is certainly affected by the "content" of "subject

matter," but what he learns is affected by the total living environment in which this content is studied. The content, the personality of the teacher, the activities and methods of the teacher, the physical environment are all part of a unified experience. In this sense, we can see that the distinction between content and method becomes artificial. We cannot say that it is "what" you learn, not "how" you learn, that is important any more than we can turn it the other way round. In fact, we cannot even validly differentiate between "what" and "how." The continued use of such terms as "what" and "how" or "content" and "method" represents merely a dependence upon traditional habits of speech rather than upon their value as descriptions of reality.

The learning process involves all aspects of the learner's own personality as well as of the total environmental situation. A child learns not only intellectually and verbally, but emotionally, physically, and socially. How futile it is, then, to seek an isolated "method" which can answer equally well for all phases of a child's learning experience! A given method might work best for verbal outcomes but be quite inferior in terms of the child's emotional acceptance of his learning or of its effect on his social relationships with his teacher, parents, and other children. And if it were possible to find one method which could answer equally well for all learning outcomes, we would still be up against the hard fact of individual differences in children and teachers.

Accordingly, it becomes a relatively unrewarding process to think of teaching in terms either of content vs. method or of this method, that method, and some other method. Indiscriminate condemnation of lecturing, to the extent that we call lecturing a method, fails to promote better teaching, for the most part. Similarly, enthusiasms for the "contract plan," the "project method," "socialized recitation," and the like have put the teaching problem into false perspective. The objection to these is not as types of activities, but as mutually exclusive and all-beneficial methods of teaching as such. So long as we are bound by these symbols, we have difficulty in thinking about what good teaching means.

Let us approach teaching, then, as a craft demanding a variety of skills on the part of those who practice it. Practically all teaching consists of a combination of telling, demonstrating, guiding, and in-

spiring, and there are many techniques which teachers can use to help them become more skilled practitioners of their art. No teacher will do all these things equally well, just as no carpenter, painter, musician, physician, or farmer does equally well all the things required in the practice of his art. Every teacher will emphasize most the thing he does best but will continue to try to improve continuously in all aspects of his craft. Furthermore, most of these skills must be learned, and they must be kept continuously in use. There is a definite need for pre-service and in-service education of all who aspire to teach on any level.

GOOD TEACHING IN RELATION TO THE GOALS OF EDUCATION

What, then, are the skills which constitute the teaching art or craft? Certainly we should find one lead to these as we consider the goals of education, or the task of the school. Practically all expressed philosophies of education emanating from curriculum programs lay great stress on democracy. Suppose we examine the problems of teaching from the standpoint of democratic principles of education.

The first of these principles, as usually stated, puts stress on the importance of individual human beings, respect for personality. Here we get one important reason for basing the program on student needs and especially on individual differences in needs, abilities, and interests. Uniform, undifferentiated teaching, with respect to assignments, expectancies, testing and grading procedures, and the like, certainly violates respect for personality and the worth and dignity of the individual human being. But respect for personality means an emphasis on individual differences as bases on which the school program might be built, not merely as irksome annoyances caused by deficiencies which the teacher must overcome. A teacher should know how to study children's differences and how to make use of the unique contributions of all.

A second principle of democracy emphasizes group and individual responsibility, coöperative action, and social concern. Obviously, citizens who hope to make a success of coöperative action need the skills of group discussion and group planning. One way to learn these skills is to practice them. A good teacher should have minimum skills in helping children and youth plan and organize their

group enterprises, whether in the classroom, the out-of-class school activity, on the playground, or in any aspect of education. This teacher should know how to use and guide the pupil-teacher planning process.

The third principle of democracy emphasizes reflective thinking and problem solving. This calls for much effort in thinking and problem solving activities. Obviously, a program based on passive acceptance of what somebody else says will not promote much in the way of these abilities. The teacher needs certain skills in guiding the thinking process in the direction of desirable learning outcomes.

These principles of democratic relationships indicate certain leads to the skills of good teaching. Let us add to these some other items with which we are all concerned as teachers.

First of all, teachers are tremendously concerned about their relationships with students. They talk much about "discipline problems." They probably worry more about this point than about anything else connected with teaching. Regardless of how they define "discipline" or whether they are "progressive" or "reactionary," almost all teachers agree that good working relationships with students are essential to a good learning environment. Skills important in achieving this therefore take high rank among those with which teachers need to be concerned.

Second, we find much concern with motivation, an item closely related to good human relationships. Almost all teachers want to be interesting, want to feel that they are inspiring their students to good effort. They want to challenge their students. So we face the question: how can we develop good motivation in a manner consistent with the entire philosophy of education that we profess?

Third, teachers are concerned with activities and materials. This is most closely related back to our respect for individuals in a democracy, since it is only through the use of a reasonable variety of activities and materials that we can best meet individual needs and build our programs on individual differences. Teachers want to be good managers of a group enterprise involving a variety of activities and materials. To be a good manager demands skills, which for most teachers don't come naturally, but have to be learned.

Fourth, all teachers are concerned with evaluation, whether in

the broadest sense or in the most narrow. They want to develop fair and equitable bases for grading students. Many want to go beyond merely testing for information and to develop means of getting evidence on a wide variety of behaviors. Evaluation should not be regarded as an end point. It is continuous throughout all teaching and becomes, therefore, one of the most important areas of teaching skill. Also, we must be constantly alert to see that our evaluation procedures are consistent with the goals of democratic education.

Some may object that teachers' concerns are no valid guide to the development of teaching skill. On the other hand, it can be argued that the concerns of teachers have grown out of their everyday experience and are therefore an important source of ideas on this matter. Furthermore, the four areas of concern here mentioned (pupil-teacher relationships, motivation, management of activities and materials, evaluation) are in no way inconsistent with the areas derived from analysis of a democratic philosophy of education. Actually they reinforce and strengthen the carrying out of that philosophy.

It is also recognized that these areas of teaching overlap. Motivation is clearly interrelated with good pupil-teacher relationships, but it is certainly not the whole story of those relationships. Similarly, skillful management of activities and materials is interrelated with motivation, but it is not the whole story of motivation.

The attempt is made now to set forth a list of teaching skills which are important in realizing the goals of education. Curriculum development programs should help teachers increase their skills and understandings along as many of these lines as possible. These skills are seen, not as "methods," but as behaviors applicable to helping teachers do a better job of the peculiar relation of telling, demonstrating, guiding, and inspiring called for in their own situations. These skills become the means of achieving democratic education outcomes.

A PROPOSED LISTING OF IMPORTANT TEACHER BEHAVIORS

The statement of each behavior is followed in parentheses by a statement of the related area as found either in democratic principles or in the concerns of teachers.

1. Identification of student needs and differences (respect for personality, importance of individual).
2. Creating confidence in one's leadership (pupil-teacher relationships, motivation, social responsibility and group effort).
3. Planning with students and guiding of student-teacher planning (social responsibility and group effort).
4. Effective telling (motivation, group effort).
5. Assignment or activity planning (group effort, importance of individual, pupil-teacher relationships, motivation).
6. Leading and promoting group discussion (social responsibility and group effort, reflective thinking, motivation).
7. Demonstrating (pupil-teacher relationships, motivations).
8. Group problem solving (reflective thinking).
9. Testing, evaluating, grading (evaluation, respect for personality, reflective thinking).
10. Managing materials and activities (respect for personality, pupil-teacher relationships, motivation).
 - a. Reading.
 - b. Audio-visual aids.
 - c. Community resources.
 - d. Speakers and class interviews.
 - e. Dramatic activities.
 - f. Art, music, literature.
 - g. Construction and handicraft activities.
 - h. Presentation activities by students.

ANALYSIS OF SOME OF THE FOREGOING BEHAVIORS

Let us look further into some of these teaching behaviors, both to clarify their meaning and significance and to provide possible leads for curriculum development programs.

Identification of Student Needs and Differences

While it is probably true that the born teacher can do this on an informal basis and have it come naturally, most of us need some tools and need to learn their use. Psychologists and guidance specialists over a period of years have evolved many kinds of tests, scales, record forms, and other instruments. But the everyday use of these techniques is a matter for the classroom teacher, not for the

specialist alone. It may be assumed that even teachers who had guidance courses in their preparation need to give constant attention to this matter. A good curriculum development program, therefore, should stress in-service education in the use of those tools and techniques which teachers need in order better to understand as individuals the children and youth with whom they work. Child study groups and case conference discussions assume high importance as activities in curriculum development programs.

It will be pointed out at once that the secondary-school teacher with five or six separate classes is at a disadvantage on this point, compared with the elementary-school teacher in a nondepartmentalized setup. To carry out this identification function with 150-200 students becomes a virtual impossibility. So the question is raised: what about the structure of the all-school program in relation to this function? Suppose teachers in secondary schools, or some of them at least, had part of their programs on a double-period basis? A teacher might have two double-period classes plus one single-period class and work with a total of 90 students instead of 150, if we use a basis of 30 students per class. This is one of the possible important school program implications related to the development of teaching.

Creating Confidence in One's Leadership

While there are no absolute rules on this point, there are some guide lines. Voice, bearing, dress, courtesy, and the like all have important relationships to this behavior. Certainly it is true that the teacher who wants to win respect for himself and his leadership must in turn respect the children and youth with whom he works. This function justifies much emphasis in the curriculum program on a democratic philosophy of education, especially in relation to respect for personality.

Respect for leadership is based also on competence in carrying out leadership roles. One of the most important leadership roles of the teacher is to provide the physical environment within which good teaching, planning, and learning can go on. This means that the teacher gets to class on time, makes provision for carrying out his routine items with dispatch and efficiency, and provides for orderly placing and use of materials. Teachers who fail on these points will have difficulty in establishing leadership roles and in gaining

student respect. But a teacher who “floats” from one classroom to another during a school day is under a heavy handicap in carrying out his function. One of the curricular responsibilities of administration, then, becomes that of helping every teacher secure his own classroom so that he can arrange a suitable learning environment. Sometimes this just can’t be done when we are using buildings too small for our student bodies. On the other hand, there may be times when the situation might be considerably improved. It will never be improved, however, unless enough teachers, administrators, or lay people see this as an implication growing out of this phase of the curriculum development process.

Student-Teacher Planning

This means nothing more than the fact that many of the decisions which teachers ordinarily make by themselves might be shared with students on a group planning basis. But this term is frequently misunderstood. Many people identify student-teacher planning exclusively with student determination of the content of instruction. They are afraid that student determination of content might lead to chaos and therefore are afraid to carry on student-teacher planning at all.

Now you may or may not want students to share in the planning of the content. But whether you do or not, there are many other aspects of group work in education which can be planned. Every time a teacher meets with a group, the following six questions have to be faced, and in some way answered, directly, or by implication:

1. *Why?* This question may be ignored, but only at one’s peril!
2. *What?* This brings up the question of the content of instruction.
3. *When?* This involves time scheduling, preparation of a calendar, or agenda. When you start a unit of work, you and your group need to anticipate the “when” question to some extent, or you simply won’t come out.
4. *Who?* Even if all the students read the same twenty pages for tomorrow’s lesson, that’s one kind of answer to this. But if we don’t always have all students doing the same thing, somebody has to decide who is going to do what—and when.
5. *How?* This brings up the whole question of choice of activities.

6. *Where?* Often this question is answered by saying, "In the classroom." But this isn't always the answer. There are the school library, the community, the playground, the athletic field, etc.

That is, we face the question "*Who* is going to do *what*, *when* will he or they do it, *how* and *where* will they do it, and *why*?" If you completely black out the "what," you still have five major issues left on which to develop planning activities with your students. This means that it is perfectly consistent with student-teacher planning for curriculum committees to provide guide lines for content, to indicate centers of interest for various grade levels, and the like.

Of course, the reason for student-teacher planning is to provide practice in planning. Our democratic principles stress group effort and coöperative planning. How, then, will children and youth learn to plan unless they have planning experiences in family, school, and community? But there are some other values in student-teacher planning. It helps with motivation, with establishing confidence in the teacher's leadership, and it certainly improves student-teacher relationships. There are many reasons, then, why teachers should seriously consider what student-teacher planning means and how it might help in their teaching. Moreover, we need not necessarily confine group planning to social studies classrooms. The process is applicable whenever there are decisions to be shared. Mathematics and science teachers who feel they have topics which must be covered need not fear that student-teacher planning will sabotage their efforts. In these subjects, teachers may wish to determine the "what," but they can still plan with their students on the other five questions.

Every so often someone tells us of a teacher who claimed to be carrying on student-teacher planning, but who really guided the children to come out with the plans he wanted in the first place. The narrator of this anecdote implies that the teacher is somewhat of a hypocrite. The anecdote is also designed to make the whole student-teacher planning process slightly ridiculous. Suppose now that a teacher actually were guilty of setting the stage for planning to go in a certain direction. What of it? Remember that the main purpose of student-teacher planning is to give children and youth practice in planning. If the children and youth in question have a good planning experience and improve their planning skills, it

doesn't make any difference whether the teacher skillfully guided them along or not. The narrator of this anecdote, if he is shocked by the proceedings, is merely sharing the fallacious notion that there is something essentially more sacred about the student's casual desires at any given point than there is about the teacher's preplanning. Actually, if the teacher's plans have merit, and if the students through the planning process identify themselves with these goals, what we have here may be an example of effective teaching. Nor do we preclude the possibility that in many instances students' expressed desires should be seriously considered and probably followed. The point is that the value of a student-teacher planning experience need not stand or fall on the one issue of whether the students determined what should be studied.

Good student-teacher planning depends on good teacher preplanning. In Chapter V the attempt was made to show the use of resource units as preplanning aids. Resource unit development as part of a curriculum planning program helps provide the means of stimulating student-teacher planning in a school system.

While central office guide lines do not necessarily prohibit pupil-teacher planning, they may, if rigid and inflexible, discourage it. Curriculum bulletins in the subject fields or the core curriculum should be designed with this problem in mind. State-wide guides should be flexible enough to leave room for considerable planning in the local groups. City- or county-wide guides should encourage planning in separate schools. School-wide guides should point the way to student-teacher planning in classrooms, student activity programs, and the like.

Student-teacher planning has one more important implication for curriculum development programs. The program itself should provide teachers with an example of good coöperative planning. A curriculum program which offends either by use of authoritarian domination from the administration or by chaotic planlessness will not encourage teachers to use group planning procedures in their teaching. Leaders of a curriculum planning program have the same obligation for good preplanning and for freedom and flexibility as a good teacher has in dealing with children and youth.

Group planning is part of what we sometimes call "group proc-

ess," an emphasis which has received much attention in curriculum work. This is part of the problem of organizing and administering curriculum programs and will be dealt with in Chapter VII of this book.

Telling

This activity has fallen into much disrepute, especially in educational psychology circles and in teacher education institutions. It is condemned on the score of promoting "passive" rather than "active" learning, of emphasizing "verbalism," and of "learning about things" instead of having actual learning experience. No doubt, indiscriminate telling in all situations leads to educational misfortune, but the fact that the doctors of antilecturing often fall back on the technique in their own classes indicates there must be something of value in it.

Effective lecturing provides one means of initial motivation, especially during the exploratory or introductory activities of a learning experience. Some teachers, of course, lecture more effectively than others, and because of their gifts of voice, facile expression, and the like may advantageously use this approach more than other teachers. Teachers also must use telling when they are trying to summarize group thinking at a certain stage of the student-teacher planning process. In fact, this pulling out of important issues at critical points in planning is one of the most important functions of a teacher in group process. Oral communication through telling is certainly an important medium for carrying out this function. For this reason every teacher should strive to improve his effectiveness in lecturing, or telling.

Much of the reaction against lecturing has been against a certain type of lecturing. We have reacted against the teacher who reads (sometimes badly) from old manuscript material which the students might get more effectively by reading it themselves. We react against the lecturer who shuts out all group participation and interaction. We don't like lecturers to assume a know-it-all attitude and to talk down to the group. But these evils should not preclude the selective use of oral telling in a manner consistent with our best curricular purposes.

Assignment Making

Some may object to the harsh sound of this term, but again we are probably reacting against its attendant evils rather than against the function itself. We have all seen too much assignment making in which the teacher imposes work on the group through authoritarian pressures, in which all students are forced to go through identical routines.

But good assignment making is one important aspect of the teacher's work. Assignment making and planning can be done in a manner consistent with group coöperation, the importance of the individual, good pupil-teacher relationships, and good motivation; or it can violate every one of these major tenets of good teaching.

Viewed in relation to student-teacher planning, assignment making involves the "who" and "when" parts of that process. Ideally, assignments come from the group. If we think of the activities of a group learning experience as introductory, developmental, and culminating, assignment making comes in as the introductory activities merge into the developmental. After a group has identified its problem, the next step is to break it down in terms of the necessary steps needed in working on it. Every person in the group should understand clearly his role in the group process. This is the major function of assignment making.

The making of assignments should also take into account the building of the experience on individual differences. Obviously, the assignment should not often be made inflexibly uniform for all the students in the group. It is also important to go as far as possible in the direction of group self-motivation.

To make the transition to the developmental stage of the learning experience, it is necessary to have a good kickoff in the introductory stage. A curriculum program can contribute to good assignment making by helping teachers see many possibilities for challenging group interest and participation at the outset. Here again teachers will turn to resource units for ideas to use in preplanning.

Leading and Promoting Group Discussion

Group discussion may be led by the teacher or by members of the group. In either case the teacher has the responsibility of under-

standing clearly the functions and theory of group discussion and the techniques of carrying it out effectively in practice.

Teachers should guard against making a fetish of group discussion. This tendency has come about as one aspect of the reaction against telling. We have developed an almost mystical regard for "getting it out of the group itself." Group discussion, like lecturing, is an important teaching tool, but we must continuously examine its appropriateness in relation to important educational goals. The tremendous emphasis on group discussion has led to its use for unsuitable purposes and so has produced in some quarters a feeling that "discussion doesn't get anywhere."

Discussion itself doesn't do everything; nor does any one particular discussion technique achieve all values in discussion. Here are some of the things which discussion seems to be good for:

1. *To raise, define, and clarify issues and problems.* This is an essential step in the group problem solving process. A class may start with a rather vague consideration of the housing problem in the community. Interaction through group process brings up the important issues which should be clearly understood by all. Every participant has a potential contribution to make in terms of getting clearer, sharper statements of what the issues are and of seeing clearly where the various points of view expressed are in agreement or disagreement with one another.

2. *Facilitating group planning.* Discussion is the lubricant of the planning process. Only through interaction can we get a maximum number of good suggestions of what we might do and how we might go about it.

3. *Evaluating hypotheses and proposed solutions to problems.* It is often emphasized, and rightly so, that discussion doesn't necessarily lead to the "answers" or to "getting the solutions." But proposed solutions and hypotheses, whether they come from group discussion itself or from other sources, can be examined in the group discussion process. The discussion may not give us the evaluation of the proposed solution; but it ought to suggest leads as to how to go about getting an evaluation adequate for the purposes of the group. For example, one group of students in a school might suggest putting in hall monitors as a solution to the problems of group conduct in corridors. Before action can be taken on this proposal, there is

need for much give-and-take and total group interaction as to its possibilities.

4. *Encouraging individuals to identify themselves with group purposes by gaining status, participation, belongingness, and security.* This is the one important reason why it is potentially desirable that everybody participate in discussion. Those who hold back fail, or refuse, to identify themselves with the group. This contributes to their feeling of isolation and inadequacy. It leads to nonconstructive opposition to group interests outside the arena of discussion. On the other hand, the person who gets into the discussion may not get the group to agree with him, but he feels that he has been part of what is going on and will identify himself with group purposes on that basis. Group discussion has important but often neglected mental health implications.

The foregoing are some of the functions of group discussion. It should be strongly emphasized that there is one function which group discussion itself cannot assume—that of orderly and logical presentation of information. Direct oral or written exposition can do a much better job with this. Yet how often do we hear group discussions condemned because they do not accomplish this one particular task! Of course, a good group discussion may reveal need for information on a certain point. Appropriate steps may then be taken to secure it.

Teachers should understand the various types of group discussion procedures—panels, round tables, and forums¹—and the role of leaders and participants in each. They should be able to perform adequately as discussion leaders and to help student leaders learn to do the same. To this end it is important to learn some of the tricks of the trade—how to arrange the physical environment, how to introduce the discussion topic, how much to plan in advance, how to direct leading questions, how to summarize at appropriate intervals, how to ask for clarification, how to bring in the nonparticipant, how to keep the overenthusiastic from dominating the discussion.

Probably the single most important function of the discussion leader (teacher or student) is to help safeguard the emotional and

¹ A symposium is here regarded as a series of direct presentations and not as an example of group discussion. A forum is defined as a combination of direct presentation of viewpoints with opportunity for interaction through use of panel or round-table techniques.

mental health factors for all participants. One way to do this is to make something important out of every contribution. Too often some timid person works up courage to say something, only to be slapped down on the basis that his remarks are irrelevant, pointless, or in other ways wide of the mark. Consider what that does to such a person's security, status, belongingness, and participation! On the other hand, think what might be done by a leader who can take such a faltering contribution and build up the contributor's status by showing some important relationship. This takes much human sympathy and considerable skill, but it is one of the most important functions of discussion leaders.

Curriculum development programs should help teachers see the significance of group discussion as a technique of democratic interaction. Obviously, a curriculum program which makes good use of discussion techniques will motivate teachers to go and do likewise.

Demonstrating

Ordinarily we think of demonstration as a skill needed by teachers in physical education, industrial arts, and the physical and biological sciences. But the social studies teacher can demonstrate the skills he wants to teach—skills of democratic group participation, problem solving, and human relationships generally. The English and speech teachers should demonstrate good writing and speaking. Of course, these planning and communication skills should be found to some degree in all teachers.

Group Problem Solving

In a democratic school we want all students to develop their ability to carry on reflective thinking, not only as individuals, but as interacting individuals in groups. This means developing skill in analyzing and defining problems, gathering and evaluating data, advancing hypotheses, drawing conclusions, and, when possible, carrying conclusions into action. Certainly this does not mean that every group learning experience has to follow the problem solving pattern; but it does mean that even in the early grades some group problem solving should be a significant part of every child's education. Some "units" should be problem solving type units, while others may legitimately be straight topic-study experiences.

Statements of group problems should carry implications for action. For example: "How can we get better housing in our community?" "How can I choose a vocation and get a job?" "How can the nations of the world work together for enduring peace?" "What should be done better to use our natural resources?" The formulation of the problem is a matter of importance and should be arrived at through the best group discussion and interaction.

Part of the teacher's role in problem solving is helping to develop awareness of problems. This comes particularly into the introductory stages of units. Teachers here need to make use of dramatic current materials—motion picture, radio, newspaper, and the like.

The evaluating of data or evidence is crucial in problem solving, and it is here that teachers must exercise their leadership skill to the utmost. We learned from our experience in the 1930's that children and youth can become negatively critical, that they sometimes oversimplify the whole question by pinning the label "propaganda" on practically every attempt at persuasion. This difficulty can to some extent be mitigated by seeing the evaluation of evidence in relation to the total problem solving process, rather than as the isolated stunt of "propaganda analysis." Data are to be evaluated in relation to the purposes of the given problem solving activity.

Evaluation, Testing, and Grading

These activities are to be viewed as an integral part of the total learning process rather than as something coming at the end. The following considerations in relation to this area stand out as important in curriculum development programs:

1. *The need for evaluating learning outcomes of many types.* Too much stress has been placed simply on testing for information. Most statements of the "task of the school" emphasize the learning of important skills, the development of interests, the maturing of social attitudes and values. Curriculum development programs should help teachers see possibilities for gathering evidence along some of these lines as well. Good resource units can make a contribution to teachers on this point.

2. *The use of a variety of evaluation techniques.* Our stress on information has grown partly out of an emphasis on paper-and-pencil

tests. It is true that we can expand the use of paper-and-pencil tests to include some of the more important critical thinking skills as well as social attitudes. But we need to supplement these tests with observations of behavior, either recorded as informal anecdotal records or kept more systematically on some type of behavior chart. Nor can we afford to overlook the importance of self-appraisal devices.

3. *The individualizing of evaluation as a basis for grading.* It is difficult to justify uniform grading standards for all students regardless of ability. The emphasis should be placed on individual growth rather than on comparison with other students. Many schools are moving in this direction, but in too many instances we still judge a student by where he stands in relation to the national norm on standardized achievement tests. The use of national norms can be justified to get some standard of comparison in terms of which to see individual student growth; but it is questionable to use national norms as an absolute basis of comparison to arrive at a judgment or grade for the individual student at any one point.

4. *The diminishing of emotional tension in evaluation.* Evaluation has become too much a sort of punitive measure. In the minds of many students the entire process symbolizes a conflict between students and teachers. Overemphasis on competition for grades has contributed to this element of fear. We need to help students see evaluation as a natural part of the learning process and to regard evaluation techniques as means by which they can judge their own growth and bring about further improvement. To accomplish this, we need to review the whole matter of "failure" in education and also to ask ourselves whether the hard-and-fast divisions between one grade level and another, especially in the elementary school, are necessary.

The problems related to evaluation and grading lie close to every teacher's heart. They make an excellent kickoff type of problem for a faculty study of the goals of education.

Managing Materials and Activities

Every teacher who uses a variety of materials and activities has to develop administrative skill. This involves not only the mechanics

of classroom management and organization, but also some insight into the curricular implications of various types of materials and activities.

Reading Materials and Activities. Reading enters the learning experience at many points. Teachers may use the reading of a chapter in a textbook as the major introductory activity. Or they may during this introductory stage let students browse in a variety of reading materials—books, magazines, pamphlets, newspapers—as a basis for exploring many possibilities. Also during the developmental stage of a group learning experience, students and teacher encounter the need for specific data, information, facts, and ideas, many of which can be secured through the reading medium. And, of course, at all stages of learning, there should be time for reading for fun.

It is particularly important to help students learn to read with discrimination and reflection. This includes that phase of critical thinking and problem solving which stresses the evaluation of evidence. Children and youth need to move away from blind, uncritical acceptance of everything they read, as well as away from blind, uncritical rejection and negativism. The important behavior for citizens in a democracy is to evaluate what they read in relation to the purposes of their reading and to evaluate particular selections of reading materials in terms of the problem at hand. Teachers can help children and youth develop this behavior through appropriate learning activities, such as the use of "interpretation of data" tests. These tests provide practice not only in reading straight expository material, but in getting accurate meanings from graphs, charts, and tables.

The management of reading activities and materials therefore comes very close to the major objective of reflective thinking in the problem solving process. It is one of the central tasks of the school in terms of the philosophies of education championed openly by most school systems.

Good resource unit materials help teachers find sufficient variety of reading so as to build the program on individual differences in abilities and interests. School librarians are particularly useful at this stage of resource unit development and preparation.

Audio-Visual Aids. These, of course, include everything from blackboard and chalk to the most expensive and intricate mechanical gadgets. All serve the function of enriching and clarifying learning through the use of the sensory avenues of the eye and ear. They represent a more direct and less symbolic approach to communication that is possible in the reading process.

A good curriculum development program should provide the setting in terms of which teachers, lay people, and students can evaluate effectively the place of audio-visual aids in learning. Neither uncritical enthusiasm nor dogged opposition provides the basis for seeing the contributions of these types of materials and tools. It means going back directly to our educational goals, our notion of the "task of the school." Perhaps a good discussion of the place of audio-visual aids in teaching might be one good way of launching a curriculum study program.

Specifically, the motion picture and the radio provide means of dramatizing problems. The old documentaries *The Plow That Broke the Plains* and *The River* dramatized for thousands of Americans the problem of the dust bowl and the floods. Since awareness of a problem is one of the first steps in the problem solving procedure, any experience which provides some of that awareness makes a contribution to reflective thinking skills. On this one point alone motion pictures can be justified in relation to a democratic philosophy of education.

Motion is, of course, the unique characteristic of the motion picture. But dramatization is not the only value coming from motion. Through motion we can show processes as they actually occur. The growth of a plant can be seen as a continuous process instead of a series of jumps from one stage to the next. Slow-motion techniques make it possible to show processes otherwise beyond our vision.

But there are instances where we don't want motion. We want to examine in detail the photograph of crystalline structure, of a flower, of a cathedral. So we turn to still pictures, and if necessary we project our picture on a wall from a slide. This elaboration of the obvious is introduced here simply because there are so many arguments about the relative merits of motion pictures and still pictures. Likewise, we argue about sound motion pictures vs. silent motion

pictures. All of these questions come back to the question "What are we trying to do?" the curriculum development program, with its emphasis on purposes and philosophy, provides the general atmosphere within which all of us can do a better job of answering some of these specific questions.

We need also to consider audio-visual aids in relation to their place in group learning experience. Obviously, they can be used to develop awarenesses needed in the introductory stages. In addition, class committees can get needed material during the developmental stage by using some of these aids and can improve their presentations to the rest of the class by using audio-visual aids as supplementary tools.

Sometimes teachers and supervisors become tremendously concerned over some of the methodology questions in the use of audio-visual aids. We hear of schools which permit the use of only so many motion pictures a week. Or else we encounter dicta to the effect that *always, always* a teacher should have a specific build-up for the particular aid in class. Sometimes we find that a passion for good follow-up leads to having students take notes on every motion picture. Obviously, if we refer these questions back to our purposes, we shall find little justification for such blanket rules. Teachers and supervisors should discuss these questions in the framework of give-and-take provided by good curriculum development discussion groups. Remember, audio-visual aids, be they embodied in gadgets ever so shiny and intricate, are only learning tools and should be subordinated to the desired outcomes of the learning process. They are not ends in themselves and should not be approached as though their use had to proceed in terms foreign to the use of any other kind of learning tool.

Community Resources. The normal life of every community provides many learning opportunities for children and youth in school. Railroad stations, freight yards, post offices, airports, factories, recreation centers, housing projects, and historic monuments are samples of these possibilities. Every curriculum development program should be concerned with helping teachers and students in all fields to make maximum effective use of these resources.

The all-class visit or excursion provides one, but only one, means of making use of community resources. It should be used only when

there is some definite purpose which can be met most adequately in this way. These purposes probably come up most often in the introductory stage of a learning experience. During the exploratory activities of a contemporary problems course in the twelfth grade, for example, the entire class might visit a housing project, a health center, or an industrial plant.

But there are other times when a small committee of three or four students from the class might visit the community resource and bring back information and ideas to the whole group. Or some person from a community agency such as the health department might bring an exhibit to the classroom. Perhaps there are opportunities for taking pictures of historical objects in some private home and then showing these in the school. The point is that our use of community resources must be varied and flexible and that the particular technique used at any time must be consistent with the purpose and possibilities.

Bringing People from Outside into the Classroom. This is, in a sense, one way of using community resources. Many lay people can make fine contributions to learning experiences. Again we have tended to make too much use of one technique—that of inviting someone in to make a speech. This technique has real disadvantages. It probably makes the outside person uncomfortable. It leaves too much possibility that he won't talk about the thing the class really wants. It also makes interactions more difficult. One way to vary this is to bring the outside person in for an informal interview. Either the teacher or a committee of students may conduct the interview. This situation puts the outside person more at ease and makes it possible for the group to direct the discussion along the lines it wants. Moreover, it provides an easier transition into the general discussion.

There is one vexatious problem involved in the use of community resources generally and outside speakers in particular. In city systems where there are many classes, certain groups and individuals are practically run ragged by requests for speeches, interviews, visits, and the like. Sometimes this produces a kickback and embarrasses the administration. It is necessary, therefore, to have some kind of group planning in the school system to provide for a more balanced use of community resources and people. Here is another

important problem to be faced in a curriculum study program—often a good starting problem for the program itself. Little intelligent planning on this problem can be done without getting immediately into the question of educational purposes.

Dramatization. Formalized rehearsed drama in classrooms offers many possibilities, but the problem of mechanics discourages many students and teachers from working along this line. One interesting variant, which is simpler to handle and more flexible, is the radio-type drama, in which the actors read their scripts from behind a screen or in another room. This type of dramatization does away with the need for costuming, scenery, stage setting, and the like, and also puts students more at ease. Since it can be set up quickly, we can use it for short dramatic episodes. It makes a good technique for getting variety and punch into student reports.

During the past few years much interest has centered on another type of dramatization, known in its various forms as psychodrama, sociodrama, impromptu theater, dramatic play, and the like. These take place in unrehearsed, spontaneous situations where the participants, or "role-takers," make up their action and speech as the situation develops. This is a very new field, but it appears to offer many interesting possibilities. There is a tendency to feel that teachers should not jump into the use of these techniques without a certain amount of in-service education on the matter. Such in-service activities might well become part of our curriculum study program.

Art, Music, and Literature Activities and Materials. There has long been agreement on the value of developing related art, music, and literature activities in other subjects, particularly the social studies. But certain difficulties have stood in the way. For one thing, teachers not prepared in those areas feel hesitant about getting into something where they don't feel at home. It becomes necessary to bring in art, music, and literature supervisors or consultants to help. But the arrangement of schedules and the like to provide this help introduces administrative perplexities, and it is only the heroic administrator who struggles with the problem over any period of time. Then, too, there has been a certain amount of this type of correlation where the related activities have been dragged in just to get them in. This has made the movement slightly ridiculous in some quarters.

Curriculum development programs should face first of all the possibility of strengthening the general teacher in these areas through in-service activities. The development of recordings makes it possible for the nonspecialist in music to do a pretty good job in music correlation provided he understands certain minimum fundamentals. The function of the art, music, or literature specialist would be, not that of coming into all the classrooms (which produces the scheduling headaches), but of building strength in the general classroom teachers along these lines. And, of course, a good curriculum program at all times will keep in the foreground the question "Why are we doing this at all?" The continuous appraisal of these activities in the light of educational purposes should help all teachers to make good use of these materials and to avoid the awkwardness of forced or "dragged-in" correlations.

Construction and Handicraft Activities. The problem here is similar to that of the use of art, music, and literature materials and activities, but it is complicated by an indiscriminate worship of handwork in some quarters as a universal end in itself. This worship grew up in the early days of the activity movement, when overt activity of the body was regarded as the only kind of activity with educational value. Yet there are good reasons why these types of activities should still be considered important in many learning situations. (1) They provide a much-needed correction to excessive verbalism in teaching. (But they aren't the only possible corrective!) (2) They provide an opportunity to contributions for students who are more interested in making things than in any other aspect of school work. Some students are nonverbal, but not unintelligent. They feel left out of many class situations. Handwork activities provide one means of enlisting their participation and of course building their status, security, and belongingness. (3) Construction work provides a good way of getting all-group activity and of developing coöperation and social responsibility. The role of curriculum development programs on this point is similar to the one previously developed in connection with art, music, and literature.

Student Presentation Activities. In much of our work, small groups of students go off and work out parts of the total group learning experience by themselves. They may get further ideas and information through reading, visits, or the carrying on of informal

research projects. Often we want this material brought back to the entire class. The problem of getting sufficient variety and interest in these student presentations presents real difficulties. Here are some of the ways teachers and students have worked at this.

1. *By cutting speech making to the minimum.* This doesn't mean doing away with it altogether! One way to do this, especially with older students, is to have much of the factual part of the presentation duplicated and given to the rest of the group for background reading. This technique has the advantage of forcing the students into a good practical writing situation.

2. *By supplementing the report with audio-visual aids*—recordings, motion pictures, slides, prints. This not only makes for more interesting reports, but puts the reporting students more at ease. It is probably easier for a boy behind a projector to talk about a slide on the screen than to stand up in front of the class and offer himself as the visual exhibit while he tries to make a report. Furthermore, this way of doing the report should make it easier for children and youth to develop ease and confidence in speech situations, thereby building up their morale and mental health.

3. *By the use of good, informal discussion techniques*—such as panels and round tables. Here the problem is to keep the interaction situation from becoming a series of little speeches. Teachers will need to work carefully with panel and round-table groups during the early stages of such work to help students learn the purposes and the techniques.

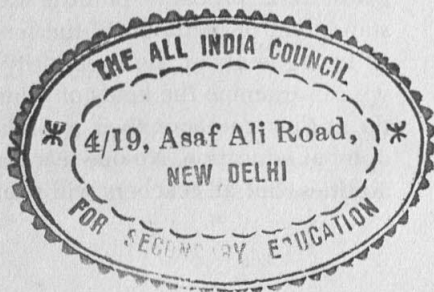
SUMMARY

The results of the curriculum study program are seen in better teaching and better learning experiences for children and youth. This means that teaching procedures must be continuously evaluated in relation to our developing understanding of educational goals. It is probably of little value to discuss teaching from the standpoint of methods, in the sense of mutually exclusive methods, or to argue about the superiority of one method over another. But we can examine the kinds of things which all or most teachers must do as they go about their work in the light of a democratic philosophy of education. No one teacher will be equally strong in all these abilities, but all teachers will want to make continual improvement

in as many of them as possible. In this chapter an attempt has been made to examine some of the abilities of the teaching craft in relation to educational philosophy and curriculum study programs. The problems which come up in connection with teaching can and should be referred back to the functions of the school, the nature of the all-school program, and the guide lines in the subject fields and in the core curriculum, or common learnings, program. Moreover, we should not regard teaching as merely the end point of the curriculum study program. Actually it might serve as a good beginning point, especially if we want to orientate our curriculum study work in terms of real problems faced by teachers as they go about their work.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. How do you define "method" in teaching? In the light of your point of view on educational purposes, what is the significance of "method" as you define it?
2. To what extent do you agree with the viewpoint that the distinction between "content" and "method" is artificial or unworkable? To what extent do you feel such a distinction makes a contribution? Why?
3. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement in this chapter of the major areas in which all teachers need continuously to develop skill or competence? How would you modify, supplement, or subtract from this statement?
4. In the light of your educational purposes, which of the commonly accepted qualities or characteristics of good teaching do you think are important? Why?
5. In the light of your conception of the important areas of competence for teachers, outline the major features of an in-service education or curriculum development program which you think would help teachers grow in these qualities.
6. What, in your opinion, is the significance of the resource unit in relation to the point of view on teaching stated in this chapter? Why?



»» VII ««

ORGANIZING AND DEVELOPING THE CURRICULUM PROGRAM IN THE LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEM

Curriculum development, a group process, involves complex problems of human relationships among teachers, administrators, curriculum consultants, lay people, children, and youth. The effectiveness of this group process determines to a large extent the degree to which improved practices take place in the school program. It is not always easy to make this group process effective. One of the most important demands in education today is for all participants in education to learn how to work together better in bringing about needed improvement.

By now we have had enough experience, happy and otherwise, to suggest some leads and guide lines. The purpose of this chapter is to present some of these possibilities in relation to the following important questions:

1. How can high teacher morale be developed and maintained in curriculum development programs?
2. What types of group work seem to be promising?
3. What are the relationships of curriculum development to administrative organization and activity?
4. How can we make best use of consultant services?
5. What guide lines are there to the problem of curriculum publications?
6. What should be provided in the way of curriculum study centers?
7. Wherein and how should this process involve the lay public, and how can it be made sensible and practical to lay people?
8. What can be done with workshops?

These are among the most important questions we must face and answer as we work on curriculum in public schools. Undoubtedly there are many more, and as we succeed in answering these, changing conditions will provide a host of new and equally important questions. But to make progress now, it is necessary that all of us concerned develop skills and

understandings needed to deal with these important questions of the living present.

DEVELOPING AND MAINTAINING TEACHER MORALE IN CURRICULUM WORK

Many an enthusiastic administrator or curriculum director has launched an ambitious program of curriculum study only to find it received by classroom teachers with indifference, and sometimes with contempt and hostility. This is said not in criticism of classroom teachers, but in recognition of a state of affairs. It is unrealistic for a curriculum director to expect people busy with their own particular routines to display at the outset terrific enthusiasm for an activity which on the face of it constitutes one more thing to add to an already overburdened life. On the other hand, practically all teachers have a strong sense of idealism and professional obligation which can be tapped as a real source of power in curriculum work. The job of the curriculum director is to manage the curriculum enterprise in such a manner that this sense of idealism and professional obligation gets a chance to overcome some of the negative possibilities. The following suggestions are given, not as sure-fire cure-alls, but as approaches which have worked successfully in certain situations and which give promise of being rather generally effective. (The terms "curriculum director" and "curriculum leader," used throughout, refer not only to people with such titles, but to any administrator, supervisor, or classroom teacher who is taking special responsibility in leading curriculum study programs.)

1. *Start the program with an emphasis on real problems of teaching and school life.* This is the same principle which curriculum directors advocate that teachers use with their students. In some school systems, the principal makes a periodic checkup or survey of what teachers consider to be the most important problems. But even without this it is possible to make some good guesses of problems which are likely to arouse widespread interest. The whole series of problems involving evaluation, grading, and reporting are practically sure-fire, as are also problems related to school discipline and morale. (See page 30 for other suggested problems and problem areas.)

Of course, the ideal situation is for the teachers to bring up the problems themselves. This doesn't happen too often, but when it does, the administrator must be careful to nourish the spark and not to quench it by arbitrarily "solving" the problem himself.

It is fairly safe to generalize also that a curriculum director or administrator must never start a study program simply on the basis of "revising the curriculum" or "doing" curriculum this year. This corresponds with a teacher's starting a year's work with a class on the basis of assigning so many pages for tomorrow's lesson.

2. *Don't dawdle over philosophy or objectives.* Starting with a problem immediately brings up the question of guiding criteria in terms of which the problem may be studied. This is a necessary and crucial second step. But it has dangerous possibilities—those of providing an avenue of escape from the problem itself. Spending a whole year on "philosophy and objectives" may certainly be long-term, but it is probably too long. It leads to the criticism that "we didn't get anywhere"—a criticism which is likely to come up, unfairly, under the best of circumstances. Agree rapidly on some short formulation of philosophy or objectives, a working statement for immediate use. It doesn't have to be the last word on the subject. It can always be revised later as circumstances demand, but it provides a basis for getting to work.

3. *Place stress on materials and activities used in classroom teaching.* As soon as possible, the curriculum discussions should get down to cases in terms of what teachers can do in the classroom. Furthermore, this "doing" phase should have practically immediate possibilities. The emphasis should be, not on what a teacher can do a year from now when the "new" curriculum has been "installed," but rather on what can be done tomorrow or next week even within the existing framework. For this purpose, resource unit writing has great practical value. Teachers working on resource units begin to set down materials and activities which can be used at once. It brings the curriculum movement directly into the classroom situation. Viewed from this standpoint, curriculum development is not only the drawing of impressive master plans; it is something dealing with new and interesting supplementary reading materials, a suggested motion picture or film strip, a set of interesting colored prints, a good person to bring in for an interview, a place to visit.

4. *Don't gibe at "subject matter."* Curriculum workers, being no different from other human beings, sometimes resort to devil words to make or carry their points. One of these negative symbols is "subject matter." This term is used in educational controversy to mean anything you don't happen to like. As a means of releasing the curriculum worker's tensions it serves a useful purpose. But the difficulty is that it antagonizes most of the classroom teachers, particularly on the high-school level. They get the idea that the curriculum worker is advocating education without content and are quite properly afraid that they can't function in such a vague, sweetness-and-light atmosphere. Usually the curriculum worker tries to patch things up by insisting that content and subject matter aren't the same thing, but by that time the damage has usually been done.

5. *Emphasize needed changes and improvements in content of instruction.* The declining prestige of course of study writing as an activity in curriculum development has led to some neglect of the content side of curriculum and to an emphasis on the so-called intangibles, such as human relationships and group process. While these items are very important, they carry a connotation of unreality to many teachers and administrators. It is equally important and to many school workers much more real to grapple with the question whether and where we should include the United Nations, human growth and development, the scientific evidence on racial differences and similarities, the chemistry of foods and nutrition, practice in automobile driving, the meaning and importance of physical examinations, and contemporary American poetry and drama. We have a twofold job along this line: one, to introduce into our curriculum the significant content needed for modern living; the other, to examine critically our present content to see what dead wood can be cleared out.

6. *Avoid sweeping demands for structural reorganization.* Some curriculum workers look down on piecemeal reorganization, as they call it, and emphasize the need for a complete structural reorganization of the curriculum, based on some different pattern. During the past generation such patterns have gone by the names of core, broad fields, fusion, correlation, integration, and the like. Probably some or all of these would be superior to our present separate subject organization, but the tendency to demand at the outset

the consideration of such sweeping changes has retarded rather than advanced needed curriculum improvement. It has led to long and usually fruitless discussions of terminology, with attempts to draw hairline distinctions between one and another of these forms of reorganization. It has led to the idea that a "new" curriculum is something radically different from what we've been doing all along, and to the idea that until we can install the "new" there really isn't much we can do to improve the "old." It has put people on the defensive by the implied assumption that everything up to now has been all wrong, so completely all wrong that the best we can do is to throw the whole works out and start over again.

This means, not that a discussion of structural reorganization is to be avoided, but that it is preferable for the interest in it to develop on a grass-roots basis rather than to be dragged into the curriculum study process at the outset.

7. *Recognize and build on individual differences in teachers.* Building on individual differences applies to curriculum study as much as it does to everyday instruction in the classroom. The fortunate curriculum director is one who can know the interests and enthusiasms of many of the teacher participants. Then he can involve teacher X because of his photography hobby, teacher Y on the basis of his live-wire relationships with the Rotary Club, teacher Z because of his equally live-wire relationships with organized labor, teacher XX through his ability to write clear and interesting summaries of discussions, teacher YY through his stamp collection, teacher ZZ through his work with Boy Scouts or community youth groups. Every teacher has some interest, hobby, or ability which can be utilized as a means of giving him a significant part in the curriculum development process. Of course, the curriculum director can't know all these differences in teachers any more than the classroom teacher can really know the differences characterizing all his students. But the attempt is very much worth while.

8. *Utilize as much as possible diversified tools of instruction and learning activities.* Sometimes the curriculum director (as the classroom teacher) must stimulate an awareness of problems. To accomplish this purpose in the early stages of curriculum study, he may find it wise to use motion pictures, recordings, film strips, community visits. These may be used to stimulate all-faculty awareness

of such important all-school responsibilities as health, recreation, and occupational education. Similarly, the varying techniques of the panel, the round table, the symposium, and the forum may be used in connection with the discussion and planning process. Nor will the director overlook the occasional possibilities of dramatization, poetry, and music.

9. *Recognize and provide for the emotional needs involved in group process.* The foregoing possibilities all add up to the importance of the belongingness, participation, status, and security of the individual teacher in the curriculum study. Sometimes a small group of eager-beaver "progressives" dominate the early phases of curriculum discussion and lead the so-called traditionalists to feel that they are on the outside looking in. The curriculum director must take pains to recognize and emphasize the contributions of all the teachers so that all may feel they have opportunity to belong. There are times when he must take a confused, perhaps complaining utterance by some teacher and reinterpret it into a positive and important idea—simply to help that teacher save face.

Several years ago a group of teachers and curriculum directors from all parts of the country gathered for a discussion at a national meeting of one of our professional organizations. This discussion group involved over fifty participants and lasted nearly two days. At the end of that time some people felt that it had been a most significant and rewarding experience, while others declared it to have been a waste of time which didn't get anywhere, just a lot of hot air, etc. For the most part the ones who liked the discussion were those who gained recognition and status early in the proceedings, while the disgruntled ones were those who either didn't summon up the courage to get into the thing at all, or, if they did, succeeded in gaining group or leader disapproval for their comments. The leader had done an excellent job of helping the majority of the participants gain status, but, of course, he couldn't make a 100 percent success of it.

That is why it is important to try to encourage *everybody* to participate in some form or other. Unless a teacher does something or says something in the process, he cannot gain participation. Without participation he cannot gain status or belongingness. The problem, furthermore, is not only to encourage people to do or say something,

but to manage the stage setting so that these contributions are given adequate recognition. Of course, this doesn't mean that the leader has to agree with everything that is said; but he must learn how to disagree and at the same time preserve the self-respect of the person with whom he is disagreeing.

Also involved in the factor of security is that of job security. Teachers of the so-called "academic" subjects are afraid sometimes that curriculum development will lead to a decreased emphasis on their subjects and possibly to their being dropped from the school faculty. Curriculum directors should emphasize the contributions which can be made to good education by all teachers, regardless of subject designation.

10. *Recognize the time problem and try to make provision for it.* It is a commonplace observation now that curriculum activities simply cannot be piled on teachers in addition to all their other work. This is a matter not only of the quantity of time needed for curriculum study. Many of the pressures of the ordinary school day make it difficult to give adequate attention to the demands of the study process.

There are several variants of the "add-it-on-to-other-work" approach. Most commonly curriculum meetings have been called for the hour or so immediately after school. This has the disadvantage of catching the school staff when it is most tired out and conscious of having been harassed by the duties of the day. Even a routine faculty meeting is difficult to swing at this time, to say nothing of a discussion calling not only for creative thinking but for sympathetic consideration of other people's problems. The general attitude toward these meetings is illustrated by the practice in some faculties of fining members twenty-five or fifty cents for each question asked of the speaker in an after-school session.

But we have long recognized the headaches connected with after-school. The trouble is often that we have tried to solve the problem simply by shoving it round the clock. Some curriculum directors and administrators have moved the after-school meeting over into the evening. For very small, informal groups of people working intensively on a specific project, such as a resource unit, this may be practical. For large-group or all-faculty meetings it is pretty nearly as bad as the after-school meeting. Then there are the hearty enthusi-

asts who insist that an hour or so *before* school in the morning is really the time to do it, "when you're fresh and alert, you know!" Aside from the fact that there are pronounced individual differences in the degree of alertness one can summon up at 7:30 A.M., this approach suffers from being just another form of "adding it on."

No, there is no way of escaping it. Curriculum work must be provided for as an integral part of the teacher's responsibility, not as something extra. There are several ways of doing this, some of which have more difficulties than others.

Probably the weakest is the practice of sending a teacher downtown to a curriculum meeting on school time and turning over his classes to a substitute. It can be argued that a good teacher can leave his affairs in such shape that a substitute can readily carry on, but the fact still remains that conscientious teachers do not like to do so and will resist it even to the point of dragging themselves off to work when they should be home getting over an illness.

Another way is to shut school down for part of the day. This does away with the need of providing a substitute, but it forces the teacher to turn abruptly from the busy whirl of school-day routine to the contemplative and reflective calm demanded for serious curriculum study. In spite of this difficulty, this approach has been used with success. For example, during 1945-1946, the rural schools of West Dane County, Wisconsin, shut down at noon on Friday once every several months. Teachers would gather at regional centers in the county to work on curriculum problems during the afternoon and evening, with supper in between. Although teachers contributed evenings from their time, they felt that the local boards were providing the afternoons on regular school time.

Individual teachers, of course, can be taken off classroom teaching entirely for a semester or so at a time to do special work, such as editing or research. This provides a means of getting a specific job done, but it cannot be used as a means of involving wide-scale participation.

Summer workshops operated by a local school system or jointly by several such systems over a period of from four to eight weeks provide an excellent time and setting for curriculum study and other activity. In some cases these are conducted jointly with universities or teachers' colleges, and arrangements are made for the earning of

credit by the participating teachers. The local board may stimulate participation also by payment of stipends to teachers who will use a summer for this purpose. Further treatment of the entire workshop possibility is given later in this chapter.

As the teaching profession moves toward the idea of year-round employment on a twelve-month salary basis with a month or so for vacations, it will be possible to make larger blocks of time available for curriculum study *as part of the job*. This is probably far off in the future.

In view of all these possibilities it appears that the most workable and rewarding at present is the short faculty conference, from two to five days in length, held at the beginning or, less preferably, at the end of the school year. This can be included in the teacher's regular work, either by an extra salary payment, or by taking those days off the total period of regular classroom instruction. In such a situation, teachers may work part of the time in all-faculty general sessions and part of the time in small work groups. Furthermore, it can be kept entirely free from the time devoted to regular instructional duties. Actually such a conference constitutes a short-term workshop, and the management and operation of it therefore depend for good results upon general good workshop procedure.

Once curriculum study becomes established as a normal part of their work, teachers themselves will find many time opportunities in an informal basis.

ORGANIZATION OF CURRICULUM GROUPS AND COMMITTEES

Curriculum groups exist primarily for the purposes of studying problems, analyzing and defining issues, recommending policies, and preparing materials. They should be organized to carry out particular functions and disbanded when those functions have been fulfilled. In this way they can be kept informal and flexible in character. Only the central curriculum committee, charged with responsibility for motivating curriculum study and facilitating its action, and a general editorial or publications board need be permanent groups.

It is usually advisable in a city or county school system to have a central curriculum committee or council. The purpose of such a

committee is primarily to motivate and facilitate curriculum study, rather than to grant or withhold approval for specific actions. This committee should consist of representatives from all levels (primary, intermediate, junior high, senior high, junior college) and all major areas of interest. In larger cities it is often desirable to have representation by buildings, and in turn to have a central curriculum committee in each building. One of the most important jobs of such a committee is to call attention to needed materials, such as resource units, and to arrange opportunities for teachers to work on such materials (as, for example, in the Denver Public Schools). This committee should also keep in close touch with the activities of state curriculum programs and serve as a communication channel between state leadership and local teachers.

Most of the curriculum groups, however, will be constantly shifting in relation to varying and expanding needs and responsibilities. It is impossible to determine in advance the structure of groups needed for a curriculum program, and inadvisable at any time to freeze the structure of the moment by laying it out in the form of an administrative chart. Many a program has been done to death in the early stages by overemphasis on organizational features and by creating an impression of terrific formalism through the setting up of an elaborate committee structure.

With the foregoing cautions in mind, we may suggest the following possibilities of curriculum study groupings and the particular jobs which each type might carry out:

1. *School-wide faculty groups for study of philosophy and/or objectives.* During the initiatory stages of many curriculum study programs, we may want to organize an entire school faculty for discussion of general directions. As pointed out in Chapter II, such general discussions should be motivated by approaching philosophy through important and concrete school problems. The purpose of this all-faculty discussion group is to provide opportunity for seeing all the possible relationships of important problems so that every faculty member can feel that he has an important part in the program.

2. *Editorial subcommittees on school philosophy and/or objectives.* The initial all-school faculty discussion should not be too prolonged. Somewhere along the line, after opportunity has been provided for expression of many viewpoints, it is desirable to set up a

small editorial subcommittee to put down on paper a point of view which may be brought back to the total group. This subcommittee is charged with a very specific job and should consist of people who can stop talking long enough to get something down to look at and shoot at. When this subcommittee report is brought back, the total faculty group will discuss it further. If substantial changes need to be made, the subcommittee may be asked to recast the statement. Otherwise, minor alterations may be made right in the total meeting. The important thing is to get such a statement of basic criteria *relatively soon* so that it may be used as a means of examining the specific problems with which the curriculum study program got under way. Of course, the statement will never be put into "final" form and may be revised later as needed.

3. *Groups to recommend policy on school problems.* Let us say that our curriculum study program has been launched with a general discussion of the school library and that a subcommittee has brought back a statement of all-school objectives accepted tentatively as a working basis. It might be undesirable for the faculty as a whole to keep bearing down solely on the school library problem in relation to the all-school objectives. There are other problems which should be considered also—grading and reporting, school government, discipline, and many others. Initial faculty discussion might be held on some of these other problems. Meanwhile the school library problem should not be abandoned. A small study group on that particular problem might go off and consider it in detail and bring back later a report recommending specific possibilities and actions. If interest develops, other groups might be appointed for the other school problems. But all these groups should be charged with the responsibility of examining their problems in relation to the agreed-upon philosophy and/or objectives and of showing how their recommendations are consistent with them.

4. *Subgroups on school philosophy and/or objectives.* It might be desirable to set up some machinery to provide for further consideration of the statement of all-school philosophy. One such group might examine the statement further in relation to the needs and problems of individuals, another in terms of the characteristics and problems of society. Such a group would be made up of people particularly

interested in these fundamental bases of our philosophy, but be charged with the responsibility of keeping the rest of the faculty aware of the need for further study, analysis, and discussion.

5. *Committees on instructional fields.* Most often curriculum committees have been set up around the instructional fields or school subjects (mathematics committees, social studies committees, industrial arts committees, and the like), and usually they have been assigned the task of preparing course of study materials. This is still a very important part of the curriculum program, and such committees may be organized as needed. They are the groups which will carry out the activities described in this book in Chapter IV. Theirs is the responsibility of seeing the specific application of all-school objectives to the problem of selecting and organizing content, not necessarily in terms of subject outlines, but in terms of pointing to neglected areas which might be developed through resource unit construction. Not all members of the mathematics department in the high school will, of course, be members of such a committee, but only those whose interests and abilities correspond to the functions of that committee.

6. *Committees on programs for achieving all-school objectives.* The statement of philosophy should indicate areas of important objectives which cut across all subjects and all phases of the school program. Such areas will probably include physical and mental health, use of leisure time, occupations, family living, and citizenship. Committees may be organized, consisting of representatives from subject fields and/or school levels, to show how many different phases of school work may contribute to the realization of these objectives.

7. *Committees on aspects of the all-school program.* Other groups might be set up to consider the problems involved in the relation of curriculum to such phases of the total school program as guidance and pupil personnel services, school government, student activities, work experience, community service projects, general instructional methods, and materials.

8. *Case-study discussion and study groups.* Some of the most important leads to curriculum development come through the making of case studies of individual children and youth. The purpose of

such groups is not to provide diagnosis and treatment of individual students, but to help the participating teachers gain insight into the general problems and needs of many students in relation to the school curriculum. (The relationship of these groups to the total study process is suggested in Chapter II.)

9. *Resource unit construction groups.* This type of group has great practical value. It gives teachers immediate satisfactions in the curriculum program, since it provides a means of moving at once to materials of instruction and classroom activities. Furthermore, there is no need to wait for the last word on philosophy and/or objectives before you can get down to work in such a group. But resource unit groups are needed as much in the long-term development of the curriculum program as in its beginning. They serve at all times to keep the curriculum program down to earth, close to the everyday practical realities of classroom teaching.

ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONSHIPS OF THE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

Curriculum development, as an activity of the school system, involves certain administrative problems. Among these are the problem of whether teacher participation should be voluntary or required, the problem of lines of authority and relation to the board of education, the problem of the machinery of decision making, the problem of supervision.

Should Teacher Participation Be Required?

There are four possible approaches to this problem on the part of the administration.

In one approach, the administration requires all teachers to take part in curriculum groups of some kind and in addition specifically assigns every teacher to a particular group. This approach is usually found in the kind of curriculum program where the director has blueprinted the structure of committee organization in advance. This approach is found most often when committees are thought of as "production" committees and when "production" is thought of in terms of writing curriculum bulletins, courses of study, and the like.

In a variation of this approach, the curriculum director or administrator still requires every teacher to participate, but permits individual teachers to choose their spots in some predetermined structure.

The third approach still carries the requirement of participation, but teachers are not only permitted to choose their spots in the structure, but encouraged to take an active part in planning the nature of the structure itself. This usually works out pretty well, provided the teachers are given a real share in the planning.

In the fourth approach, participation is entirely voluntary, apart from general discussions in regularly scheduled faculty meetings. Or you can go all the way and put the general discussions out of the regular meetings into other sessions where attendance is voluntary. This fourth approach has the greatest potential strength, for while fewer teachers will participate, those few will have greater drive and enthusiasm. In this case also, the administration avoids the demoralization which sometimes comes to a program when a few disgruntled, reluctant teachers, forced into activities against their will, grumble and complain at every opportunity.

A good program, enthusiastically participated in by a few teachers, will improve rather than tear down all-faculty morale. Teachers who are not participating are encouraged to participate by the good reports they hear. Of course, this approach calls for patience and skill on the part of the administration and may not always be consistent with the desire to make an immediate impression. Not only must the curriculum director share this feeling of patience, but he must have the assurance from the superintendent that immediate "results" are not expected.

There is only one thing that can upset a program based on voluntary participation. The teachers taking part in the program may publicize their activities so much that they get the name of eager beavers or apple polishers with the rest of the faculty. It is important that the glow of enthusiasm which the participants shed as they go about their work not appear to be put on for the benefit of attracting favor with the administration. The administrator must be careful similarly not to appear to favor these teachers in regard to salaries, promotions, schedules, and the like.

Lines of Authority

Some of the enthusiasm for setting up predetermined organizational structures for curriculum planning comes from the desire to identify lines of authority. The desire for lines of authority comes from the idea that some person or group should "pass on" or "clear" proposed curricular changes.

For example, we find in some setups an official committee to clear all suggested curricular changes. This group is thought of as regulatory in character, since it recommends granting or withholding permission to do something. It may pass on its recommendation directly to the superintendent or may call for general faculty votes on the subject. The superintendent then may take the recommendation back to the school board for final action or permission.

Regardless of the details in terms of which such an operation is carried out, there is one basic assumption involved which we may well examine.

This assumption is that curriculum development is a series of drastic, large-scale structural reorganizations, which must be "approved" before being put into effect. This is tied up with the idea of going over to a "new curriculum" or to that of "changing" the curriculum. It is related to the tendency to think of "a curriculum" as we would think of a piece of machinery—to be "installed." It keeps company with the notions involved in speaking of "the core curriculum," or "the experience curriculum," or any kind of *the* this-or-that curriculum. Obviously, if we propose to scrap the structural organization we now have and arbitrarily to replace it with something presumably new and different, we do well to carry it through a series of steps involving administrative approval on a formal basis.

But, on the other hand, what if we think of curriculum development as a gradual and continuous process, involving many specific but relatively small-scale changes and decisions? What if we think of the process as an experimental, pluralistic affair, made up of committees of teachers working on a resource unit for use in world history, on an improved system of cumulative records, on a tryout of parent-teacher conferences, on an increased use of audio-visual materials of instruction, on a modified conception of student self-discipline in school government? We would not think for a moment

of calling on an administrative committee to O.K. items of this kind, of putting them up to all-faculty votes, or of taking them to the school board. They are part of the natural, growing development of a system of education, professional decisions to be made on a professional basis by those people on the faculty most professionally qualified to deal with the matter because of their preparation, their experience, and their responsibilities. Nor is this a denial of lay participation. Such steps can always be taken up for complete discussion in any groups involving lay people. But it is a perversion of the idea of lay participation to take every curricular change to the school board for formal approval.

The Machinery of Decision Making

Now there are occasions when action has to be taken involving some large-scale structural reorganization in the study program. These occasions would not come up too frequently in a program of curriculum development. But suppose the faculty and the community do get to the point where they want to suggest, for instance, that every student in the X high school be enrolled in a two-period "common learnings" class, replacing the required English and social studies classes. Then what?

First of all, there should be substantial consensus that such a step ought to be taken. This means that the idea has been arrived at through group process. In such a case no formal vote is necessary. Not only that, but a mere majority decision to take such a step, if a large minority definitely opposed it, would probably be unwise.

Second, the philosophy involving this move has been carefully thought through. There may be need, however, for more careful study of some of the administrative details involved. In such a situation, an administrative committee to recommend policy seems to be called for. This policy should be carried back to the faculty for discussion. On purely routine matters, calling for a vote may be the best way to make progress.

Third, it is to be hoped that this step does not involve a conflict between the superintendent and the faculty. It is difficult to see how a group of teachers and lay people, under present circumstances, could get to such a point of view if there were definite administrative opposition. It is more likely that teachers sometimes "go

along" with something of this kind because the administrator is pushing it. But again we assume this is a group process in which the administrator takes part in the normal discussion and planning. It is important that the administrator not assume a "neutral bystander" role. He is part of the group and must play his responsible part in arriving at group decisions.

Fourth, it is to be hoped that the board and the community have enough confidence in their administrator and teachers to leave a matter of this kind up to professional judgment. The discussions leading up to this policy should certainly have involved as many lay people as possible. There should be no need to pass the buck to the school board. If teacher-community relations are so bad as to make that necessary, then the mere routine fact of "board approval" isn't going to make them any better!

There are also problems of administrative authority and responsibility in connection with curriculum publications. These are taken up in a later section of this chapter.

Role of the Supervisor

These problems involve not only the workers classed as "administrators" but those with the nebulous titles of "supervisors." Especially in elementary education, where we have "special subject" supervisors in art, music, physical education, etc., we run into complicated questions involving relationships among the authorities. These questions are further obscured by the fact that the building principal, technically an administrator, is also supposed to have supervisory responsibilities.

In the most general sense, supervisors are educational workers charged with the responsibility of maintaining and improving the quality of instruction—in other words, looking after the curriculum. But in a curriculum development program, everybody is supposed to have similar responsibilities and concerns. How then do we fit the supervisor into the curriculum development program?

First of all, there should probably be an increasing emphasis on the special contribution a supervisor can make to the group process. After all, a supervisor presumably has become a supervisor because of special knowledge or skill. Group process needs all the skill and knowledge any individual can contribute. We expect the supervisor,

therefore, to take a leading role in group discussion and group planning, both from the standpoint of the "know-how" of group relationships and from the standpoint of special knowledge and information. The supervisor is a key person in any discussions involving the task of the school and the application of philosophy to the formulation of an all-school program.

Second, the supervisor should help informal resource unit groups. The strength of a resource unit depends upon the wealth and variety of suggested materials and activities. Who should have more to contribute along this line than a good supervisor? Furthermore, the special subject supervisor should help with activities related to that special subject. An art supervisor, for example, should be very helpful to groups working on resource units in social studies areas.

Third, the supervisor comes in directly at the point where the curriculum comes alive—namely, in teaching. It is sometimes difficult to work out the application of some idea, such as teacher-student planning, to the classroom situation. There are often "bugs" that have to be worked out. A classroom teacher, faced with some of these problems, can get much help in specific application from a sympathetic supervisor who shares the same philosophical convictions. But the supervisor must, of course, work with the classroom teacher, not stand aside as one who passes judgment. The same thing applies to visiting curriculum consultants who pop in and out of teachers' classrooms! Especially when a classroom teacher is "experimenting" is it necessary to avoid the judgment-passing role. Few teachers will care to try anything different if it threatens to affect their ratings. It is "safer" for them to stick to the tried and true.

The curriculum development process therefore makes the supervisor's job more important rather than less so. But in such a group process, the wise supervisor learns to depend more on the strength of his contribution than on the strength of his authority. Also, in such a process, the old argument between the building principal and the special subject supervisor concerning lines of authority becomes relatively meaningless.

USE OF OUTSIDE CONSULTANTS

It has become fairly widespread practice to bring in consultants from the outside—either professors from teacher education institu-

tions or curriculum directors from other school systems. This practice has resulted in a mixture of joy and grief for all concerned, the consultant included. Let us look at some of the ways of increasing the joy and cutting down the grief.

First of all, the local group should think through quite carefully the specific purposes they have in mind when they bring in a consultant. One very obvious purpose is to have the consultant give a general, inspirational pep talk or shot-in-the-arm type of speech. This may serve as an initiatory activity, designed to create awareness of problems and to motivate study. Not all consultants are gifted in this direction, however, and we should not give our consultants jobs they cannot perform adequately. There are many other uses for consultants. They may serve as resource people in connection with child study groups, resource unit writing groups, lay participation, broad fields or subject areas committees, and curriculum research projects. So the local group should first think through its specific need and then get a consultant who seems most likely to meet that need. Remember, there are individual differences among curriculum consultants too!

Second, let the consultant in on what you expect of him. All too often the outsider who is expected to whoop up enthusiasm for the local program is told to talk on "anything you like"! Of course, most hardened consultants have learned that it is well to have speeches up their sleeves and can usually produce something in the oratorical line. But unfortunately this may result in his "not giving us what we wanted." It is particularly important to communicate quite clearly what you are after if you have a consultant come in to meet with or take part in a small-group discussion on some specific problem. Nor does it hurt to give him the lay of the land with regard to unique local features. And if Miss So-and-so is particularly allergic to some term such as "child-centered school," you would do well to give the consultant fair warning in advance.

Third, don't put the consultant on the spot in group meetings by asking him specifically to pass evaluative judgment on some feature of your school practice. Administrators and curriculum leaders who have been trying to discourage some practice locally try to get the consultant to back them up in a faculty meeting. This is unwise from two standpoints. First of all, unless you have primed the con-

sultant in advance, he may not give the answer you want. Second, if he agrees with you and disagrees with the teachers, the possible general conclusion on the part of the teaching group is that you are both wrong. This may not bother you, but in extreme cases it may put the consultant in wrong with the teaching group and so reduce his general effectiveness.

Fourth, if you are going to use the curriculum consultant for any long-term project, give him ample opportunity to get acquainted with your local setup. Probably the first time a consultant visits your school, you shouldn't ask him to hand out any specific advice at all. Let him ask the questions and wander around to meet the teachers in a friendly, informal way. It is just as well, too, if you don't drag him around to do a lot of miscellaneous classroom visiting. Sometimes teachers aren't too happy about what a consultant sees when he comes in, and they will carry that association into all the future relationships that consultant has with that school. But above all, let him work his way slowly into giving advice. Such a question as "Should we try a core curriculum here?" or "Do you approve of our practice of homogeneous grouping?" or "Don't you think we send out report cards too often?" should be reserved for later stages of the relationship.

Finally, one word of importance to consultants. Don't dash into a strange school system and begin by making pointed criticisms in a general faculty meeting. If you must criticize secondary education in general, be sure to make it clear that you are talking about secondary education in general, and not about what you have just seen in Blank High that morning. This is especially important if the local curriculum director has been taking you around to look in on a number of classroom teachers in action. They are almost certain to think you are referring to them in particular. To begin with, such a general attitude of criticism may destroy your effectiveness at the very start.

The use of consultants generally is based on a valid assumption—that an outsider, especially one with a rich background of education and experience in school work, can create added interest in curriculum study and can also help the local group to look more objectively at its problems. This function is so important that we must be careful not to lose its value by being careless about some of the

little things involved in the consulting relationship. Good consultants, properly used, can do much to advance curriculum study and curriculum improvements in our schools.

CURRICULUM PUBLICATIONS

In almost every curriculum program the purposes of communication, inspiration, and general morale building are served by getting certain things down on paper. At one time it was considered inevitable that a respectable curriculum development program would bring forth a telephone-directory size volume containing all the courses of study for all grades and all subjects. During recent years we have begun to think, first of all, in terms of more diversified types of publications, suiting a variety of needs, and, second, in terms of smaller booklets, bulletins, or reports.

The fivefold tasks of curriculum programs as stated in Chapter I may be used as a framework for a publications program. For example:

1. Defining the task of the school. This *may* call for the following types of publications:

A discussion guide containing basic questions that must be faced in defining the task of the school. (For school people, lay people, or both.)

A summary of the needs and problems of children and youth.

A summary of social factors to be considered in working on a philosophy of education.

A suggested statement of purposes of education.

Summaries or outlines of particular areas of school objectives, such as occupations, health, and recreation.

2. Organizing the all-school program. This *may* call for the following types of publications:

Outline of the problem of general and special education.

Discussion guide for considering suggested frameworks for program of studies, possible scope and sequence organizations, etc.

Statement on relationship of guidance and the program of studies.

Statement on role of student activities in the curriculum program.

Statement on work experience.

Statement on school-community relations and community-service activities in the curriculum.

3. Developing guide lines for the instructional fields. This *may* call for the following types of curriculum publications:

Objectives, outlines, suggested teaching materials and activities in the common learnings program, if you have one.

Objectives, outlines, suggested teaching materials and activities in such areas of school subjects as social studies, language arts, mathematics, music, art, and science.

4. Aids for the classroom teacher. This *may* call for the following types of curriculum publications:

Resource units.

Pamphlets dealing with the use of audio-visual aids.

Suggested readings (books, pamphlets, magazines, newspapers) on various topics or problems.

Guides to the use of community resources.

Statements on nature and use of resource units.

5. Teaching. This *may* call for the following types of curriculum publications:

Statements on general point of view and techniques involved in pupil-teacher planning.

Guides to discussion techniques and other phases of group planning in classroom.

Statements on pupil-teacher relationships.

The publications policy should be just as informal, flexible, and responsive to changing need as the rest of the curriculum program. Pamphlets and bulletins need not be thought of as the final pronouncement for all time, but rather as a specific help to meet a problem of a particular time and place. Perhaps the way in which publications grow out of needs can be illustrated by the history of the early stages of the Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Planning Program. Although this is a state-wide program, the example has point for local programs also.

To begin with, there was a demand in many quarters for some statement of the purposes or philosophy of education. The curriculum guiding committee tended to resist making another list of objectives to be handed down from on high without creative study in the local communities. It was decided to throw this problem back to the

local groups, but to furnish help in the form of a discussion guide with questions calling attention to basic issues and problems. So it was that Bulletin No. 1, *The Task of the School*, was evolved. It had one specific purpose—to motivate and guide the study activities of local curriculum groups.

Then it became apparent that lay people also had an important part to play in the discussion of the task of the school. But the existing bulletin was too detailed for arousing much lay interest. So it was reworked into a second discussion guide, called *What Is the Job to Be Done in Public Education?* This Bulletin No. 2 did not represent a watering-down of Bulletin No. 1, but was a new approach to the problem. There was no feeling on the part of the guiding committee that the first bulletin had to be made “easier” for lay understanding. The revision was aimed not at lay understanding, but at arousing lay interest in a philosophy of education.

The curriculum guiding committee also became aware after one year that many people—teachers and lay people—had questions about the nature and direction of the curriculum program. They wanted to know what the program aimed to accomplish, if it didn’t propose to come out with a traditional course of study. So the guiding committee prepared and published Bulletin No. 3, a brief one entitled *Here Are the Answers to Your Questions*.

Bulletin No. 4, *First Things First*, was prepared to meet a demand for some organized material on the social and psychological bases of the curriculum. This was followed by much discussion concerning resource units and how they might facilitate better instruction. Out of this discussion grew the short, catechism-type Bulletin No. 5, *Resource Units in the Curriculum Program*. Following this came additional emphasis on lay participation. There seemed to be controversy and misunderstanding concerning the role of lay people. A special committee prepared Bulletin No. 6, *School-Community Relationships*.

These bulletins grew out of the actual conditions of the first two years of the curriculum study program in Wisconsin. Probably none of these bulletins could have been anticipated sufficiently to have been spotted into an advance prospectus of curriculum publications. It is likely that they met the need better than it could have been met by a series of publications lined up in advance.

Sometimes the question comes up whether to print or mimeograph such materials. Often the question is answered by stating that temporary materials should be mimeographed while printing should be reserved only for materials in "final form." Since it is doubtful whether any materials should be regarded as final, this distinction doesn't help much. Probably the main factor is the number of copies needed in relation to cost. It is always better to print than to mimeograph, but it is possible to print only when costs can be reduced through quantity production. But we certainly need not be bound to the notion that something in print has become crystallized into final form. Even "tentative" materials deserve the best format possible and should be printed whenever it is within the realm of realistic and sensible financial administration to do so.

In fairly large city or county systems, it is well to have a curriculum publications board to recommend publication to the superintendent. Such a board should not be expected to pass on mimeographed material for classroom teaching use or for small group discussion, but it should serve as a clearing house or advisory agency for anything involving fairly wide distribution throughout the system. This provides some machinery for coordination and direction. Furthermore, such a publications board should be alert to the need for materials which somebody might prepare.

City and county systems should be aware of the value of sometimes bringing a teacher into the central office to do a specific job of writing, either of resource units or of other types of publications. These teachers should be entirely clear of other duties during such time. Preparing manuscript materials of this type is exacting and time-consuming work and should not be thought of as something which can always be done on the side, or with one class off during the second semester.

CURRICULUM STUDY CENTERS

Local school systems, as well as colleges and universities, have recognized the need of providing curriculum materials in some central place which can also be used as a workroom for individuals and groups working on curriculum projects. Out of this need has developed the institution called the curriculum laboratory. Perhaps this term has now become standardized and should not be changed, but

the terms "curriculum study center" and "teaching aids center" seem to be more realistic and meaningful.

What materials should be gathered for the setting up of a curriculum study center? Obviously, an attempt should be made to get samples of many kinds of materials which might be used by classroom teachers, either directly in their teaching or for including in resource units. These materials include textbooks, pamphlet series, magazines, newspapers, printed materials from pressure or interest groups, motion pictures, flat prints, maps, charts, globes, film strips, slides, models, and the like. The precise selection of such materials depends upon local needs and circumstances and upon the relationship of the curriculum study center to other local services, such as museums and audio-visual bureaus.

It is with reference to materials for direct study of curriculum that most centers lack diversification. Too often they contain collections merely of other systems' courses of study. This is partly a result of the fact that the preparation of other types of materials is a fairly new thing. But here are some of the other things which might be collected and included:

Manuals of procedure for use by curriculum planning groups.

Discussion guides or handbooks used in the process of defining objectives or philosophy.

Statements of philosophy and/or objectives.

Guides for child study discussion groups.

Stenographic reports or minutes of discussion groups working on educational purposes, especially in relation to specific school problems.

Guides or other materials designed to help administrators and teachers relate the work of their school to community needs and problems.

Guide lines to work experience programs.

Statements of the structure of all-school programs, involving interrelationships of classroom instruction, student activities, guidance, community service, work experience.

Manuals of procedure used by groups working on guide lines for instructional fields.

Manuals of procedure for resource unit development groups.

Resource units.

Manuals dealing with phases of the teaching process, such as student-teacher planning, discussion techniques, building on individual differences, use of various types of materials.

Manuals for use by lay groups.

Curriculum news letters, magazines, etc.

Reports from lay group discussions.

Reports from discussions by children and youth.

Summaries of research studies involving adult lay opinion, youth needs, etc.

Guides designed for teachers in particular types of situations—such as one-room schools, departmentalized or nondepartmentalized elementary schools.

Guides designed for faculties dealing with problems of large metropolitan high schools, village high schools, etc.

In addition, the curriculum study center should have the resources of a good professional library if there isn't such a library available. This means including professional journals, research monographs, and general books on educational planning, youth needs, social backgrounds, and the like.

Perhaps the future will see the development of more specialized and diversified curriculum study centers in larger school systems. Already there is some feeling that materials used in curriculum study should not be confused with materials used in preparation for specific classroom teaching responsibilities. It might be desirable, on the other hand, to bring the materials into one central place, but to provide a larger number of small meeting rooms for committees or editorial subgroups.

For a general treatment of the entire topic of curriculum laboratories or study centers see the manual prepared by Francis L. Drag for the San Diego County Schools.¹

CURRICULUM WORKSHOPS

A curriculum workshop is nothing more or less than a group of people coming together to work on curriculum problems and to prepare curriculum materials. In connection with this activity they may meet in small groups and large groups, work groups and talk groups; they may employ consultants with whom they meet in groups and in individual conferences. These considerations give us the essential components of a workshop: (1) a group of people coming together

¹ Francis L. Drag, *Curriculum Laboratories in the United States* (Office of the County Superintendent of Schools, San Diego, California, September, 1947).

(2) with a job to carry out and (3) with sufficient flexibility and informality in their institutionalized arrangements to get the job done.

There is some controversy over the exact date and place of the first workshop. But the movement got started in a big way with the one held on the Ohio State University campus in the summer of 1936. This workshop was held for a specific purpose—to work on problems of the thirty schools in the Eight-Year Study. Participants in the workshop came with problems to work on and were not primarily interested in getting college or university credit. The university simply provided them with room space and consultant help.

This simple and practical device proved to be well-suited to the needs of its participants. The following summer the Progressive Education Association cautiously expanded to three workshops, in Columbus, Bronxville, and Denver. Workshops began to be heralded as a new educational dispensation, and the movement took on the characteristics of a religious cult. The summer of 1938 saw five workshops, and by 1939 the P.E.A. was sponsoring no less than ten!² By that time the bandwagon was really rolling, and almost every university and college in the country decided to climb aboard. It was freely predicted that workshops would shortly bring about the death of the “traditional” summer programs in education.

But several difficulties developed. One was the obnoxious matter of grades and credit. The early workshops simply by-passed the problem. But soon there were graduate students who wanted so many units of such-and-such credit to transfer to their degree-granting institutions. By 1939 workshops were formally installed as parts of the regular summer school pattern, and staff members had to start thinking in terms of “requirements,” “grade distributions,” and the like. How much work should a workshopper do for two, three, and five credits? These problems introduced into the workshop a degree of formalism which had been absent from the early attempts.

Another difficulty proved more fundamental. The early workshops were set up to carry out specific purposes. But when Blank University simply announced a “workshop—six to eight credits” and took in

² Kenneth L. Heaton, William G. Camp, Paul B. Diederich, *Professional Education for Experienced Teachers: The Program of the Summer Workshop* (University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1940).

the general student, it discovered that it had not a group, but an aggregation. When students arrived expecting their advisers to hand them a problem instead of coming with a problem to work on, the workshop idea lost much of its punch. The workshop often degenerated either into a variety of unrelated, confused, and sometimes pointless activities or into a carbon copy of the traditional course situation, with assigned readings, formal lectures, and the like.

The third difficulty arose out of the enthusiasm of the early workshop converts. They claimed that the workshop could not only do everything the "traditional" summer session could do, but do it better—much better. With these claims they antagonized the group that was potentially most sympathetic with the idea—the "traditional" professors of education still teaching summer school classes. The regular faculties tended to go on the defensive. This state of affairs led to a conflict situation rather than to one in which all concerned worked together to see what distinctive contributions the workshops might make.

Then came the fourth and most difficult of the difficulties—the cost. Workshops must be adequately staffed. This meant that the per-student cost of workshops soared far beyond the figure for other summer school classes. Now it may be claimed that it's worth it, but the fact remains that summer session administrators have to work within the close confines of a budget. It is difficult, in the first place, to prove that a workshop is worth the additional amount it costs, and almost impossible, in the second place, to secure without subsidies the funds for carrying it out.

It is likely, then, that the general type of workshop, not tied to a specific project, will not survive within the summer session framework. But it is also true that workshops serving specific projects will have an important future in our college and university programs. For example, the University of Wisconsin provided facilities and staff during the summers of 1945, 1946, and 1947 for workshops serving the Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Planning Program. The participants came to these workshops with specific problems developed in connection with their curriculum work and provided the basis for good drive and enthusiasm. The university carried the cost as a contribution to the state program in terms of the Wisconsin tradition of having the university serve the people.

But the most substantial and important future for the workshop idea lies in the local public school system. This applies not only to full-length summer workshops, such as held in the Minneapolis Public Schools during 1946 and 1947, but to short-term one- or two-week sessions spotted throughout the school year. Workshops provide an opportunity for teachers to work on curriculum problems freed from other school duties at the same time. Furthermore, the flexible, informal atmosphere of the workshops brings teachers, supervisors, and administrators together in a give-and-take relationship. After a workshop experience, for example, teachers and supervisors find it possible to work much more easily with each other.

Workshops depend upon good group process. This means that workshop leaders have to fulfill the functions expected of good teachers anywhere. They must preplan introductory activities carefully from the standpoint of motivating interest and developing awareness of problems. They must be concerned with building the program on individual differences of participants. They must develop the techniques of democratic group planning and discussion. They must help the participants set up "developmental" activities to carry out their purposes. Workshops are democratic learning experiences for all concerned.

What, then, about the problem of graduate credit? Ideally, the workshop should be free of the credit-and-grading problem. But if the local workshop lasts all summer, participating teachers are denied the opportunity of taking courses in regular summer sessions. There are several possible answers to this. One is to rotate workshop participation. A teacher might spend one summer taking regular summer school courses, another in workshop, another in travel, another in rest. This notion would, of course, be facilitated by the eleven-month school year in which teachers are paid a full year's salary for teaching nine months and spending two months in some worth-while activity agreed upon with the local administration.

Until such time arrives, however, it seems more practical to spot the workshops as short-term sessions at the beginning, or during, or at the end of the school year and to leave the summers free. This gives teachers the opportunity of planning their summers for travel, rest, or graduate study as they work out such programs with their local administrators.

It is likely also that after teachers have participated in one or two longer workshops they can get equally good returns out of shorter sessions. Actually a number of short-term workshops spaced out over a longer time interval may be more consistent with educational psychology than the single long-term workshop concentrated into a single time period.

WORKING WITH THE LAY PUBLIC

Involving the lay public in curriculum planning is necessary on two counts: (1) to insure the program against the kind of blowup which often results from lack of public understanding; (2) to use the real power for good which lay people can bring to the process.

During the past few years we have had much evidence that the danger of lay blowups is very real. The following excerpts from news stories are illustrative:

More emphasis on the "three R's" and no more "experimentalism" in Montgomery County Schools was demanded yesterday by an indignant, newly formed parent group.

Protesting lack of attention to "the essentials of knowledge" in county schools, the group of about 35 parents, headed by John H. Hiser, Bethesda businessman, is circularizing a petition calling for drastic revision of the school curriculum. . . .

Assignment of more homework and furnishing of more textbooks to pupils was asked as well as relegation of art work and music to a minor position in the school curriculum, and establishment of "more orderly and disciplined" classrooms. There is at present "too much freedom" the parents contend.³

A later article said that there were forty parents in the protesting group. The president of the Montgomery County board was quoted as follows:

If the complaints have the backing of a majority of our citizens, we will change the school system to conform to the wishes of the people.

However we have received many more commendations upon our school system than we have complaints of this nature.⁴

It should be noted that this protesting group comprised not merely a minority, but practically a pinpoint minority, of all the

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parents. Nevertheless, they received columns of newspaper publicity. The news stories were run not only locally, but throughout other parts of the country. The entire affair left the impression that large numbers of lay people were in rebellion against "progressive" education.

Notice also that the people in favor of the program of Montgomery County evidently got into action and convinced the president of the school board that they were the majority. Too often this doesn't happen. The inarticulate but satisfied majority remains inarticulate. Sooner or later the articulate minority wins its case.

The best protection a curriculum director has against the blowup of his program is the development of a *participating* lay public actively interested in educational progress. In such a situation the few sour notes may seem to spoil the music, but they don't leave the impression of being the entire orchestra!

Moreover, we must bear in mind the fact that disgruntled minorities are not necessarily always in the wrong. When we get their point of view in the total group process, however, we are in a much better position to appraise it than when its isolated ferocity scares us out of our wits.

If curriculum development involving the lay public is to become a genuine group process, we must get out of our system the idea that our role is to instruct or to convert the public away from the error of their ways over to the righteousness of ours. For in genuine group process, people work together on mutual goals according to their respective contributions. Nobody is there to instruct or to convert. All views get modified as a result of the planning and discussion involved. Communication between the professional group and the lay public must be a two-way process. Nor does this mean "giving the public what it wants" without evaluative study and criticism. Group process means interaction and careful study of issues. From this standpoint we may question the wisdom of the board president's flat statement, "We will change the school system to conform to the wishes of the people." This is a valid statement, provided it means the wishes of the majority *after* careful study and consideration of all issues. Simply to change the school system to conform to every casual change of public opinion means in the end satisfying nobody.

The public opinion poll is probably not too happy a technique in curriculum development.

To summarize from Chapter I, the lay public has a direct stake and part in defining the purposes of education and an important part in helping to see the application of these purposes to the setting up of an all-school program. Lay people as a group can hardly be expected to contribute much to the guide lines of the instructional fields, to the construction of teaching aids, and to classroom teaching itself, although there are exceptional individuals in the lay public who can do so. But the important job is to work with lay people in mutually defining a valid philosophy of education for contemporary life.

This means that many lay people must be involved, not just a handful on a "lay committee." It means that they must be involved in relation to specific issues and problems so that the philosophy doesn't become merely a glittering generality. This means that school people, instead of "bringing the lay people in" to the school-sponsored meeting, must go out to lay people in their already existing and functioning organizations.

Group process should be viewed in terms of its ultimate objective—better schools and better education. But the wise curriculum director will see also that genuine group process constitutes the best way of "selling" the public—or, rather, of letting the public sell itself.

Somebody will ask whether there is no place in this process for good old-fashioned "public relations." Don't we need good publicity for the schools? The answer to both questions is emphatically "Yes," provided both public relations and publicity are seen as contributing to making group process work. Here are, specifically, three essential features of any good working curriculum study program involving lay participation:

1. *Use of dramatic techniques*—to arouse lay interest in education and to promote general awareness of the meaning of educational problems. These involve the use of good motion pictures and recordings, good speakers, and good examples of discussion techniques such as forums and panels. Every school system should find the teachers who can make contributions in this area.

2. *Clear communication of the facts.* The school has an obligation

to provide information service. Group process depends on study, and study depends on adequate information. One of the best ways is to publish a news letter of some kind to go to all people of the community. Sometimes this expands into a newspaper, such as we find in the high school at Pulaski, Wisconsin.

3. *Avoidance of irritating jargon and negative symbols.* The school system should have somebody around who is sensitive to the emotional significance of words and other symbols. In certain parts of the country, for instance, the term "core curriculum" is pure poison. Sometimes our jargon not only makes us ridiculous but stirs up needless controversy as well. The more successful we are in talking about educational problems in plain U.S. English, the better off we'll all be. And this doesn't mean talking down to people, either.

So group process demands the services of the technician in publicity and public relations. Only we must see publicity directed to involving more and more lay people in educational study and not to enlisting larger and larger numbers of docile believers and followers of what we think is right.

SUMMARY

The carrying on of curriculum development programs is a complex social enterprise demanding the highest skills in human relationships. As in any process of change, the individual human beings involved approach problems in terms both of objective desire for the common good and of personal concern for their own futures. Curriculum programs are effective only to the degree that provision is made for both sets of feelings.

While there are no blueprints which the curriculum director can use to provide all the answers to the complex problems of group process, there are available certain broad guide lines. These guide lines are the ones proposed as the features of democracy in Chapter II.

One guide line is respect for personality, the idea that all people are important as individuals. This means being concerned with the belongingness, participation, status, and security of all concerned. Every proposed step in the process should be examined in relation to these emotional needs of people.

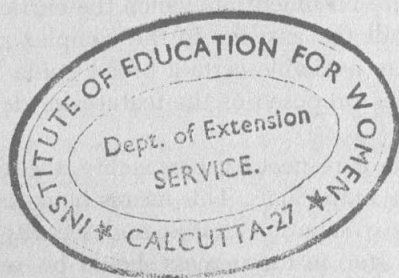
The second guide line is the mutual responsibility of the individ-

ual and the group. This means an emphasis on planning and discussion so that all possible contributions are taken up for consideration.

The third guide line is reflective thinking, the problem solving process. This means viewing problems as objectively as possible and gathering and evaluating the data needed for solving the problems.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the practice of requiring every teacher to take some part in a curriculum development program? Why? What do you mean by "taking part"?
2. For what types of purposes do you think outside consultants should be brought into the local curriculum program? Outline some of the ways you would suggest using consultants to achieve these purposes.
3. Why is it important to try to help each teacher achieve some degree of status, belongingness, and security in relation to the curriculum development program? What are some of the possible approaches to the solution of this problem?
4. What do you think are the most promising approaches to solving the problem of safeguarding teacher time and energy in curriculum development?
5. Outline your conception of the role of lay people in the curriculum development program.
6. How would you define or characterize a curriculum workshop? What values are claimed for such a workshop? To what extent do you agree? Have you ever taken part in a workshop? What was your experience with it? To what extent do you feel it contributed or failed to contribute to your effectiveness as a teacher? Why?



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RESEARCH, EVALUATION, AND EXPERIMENTATION IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Curriculum development has been defined as the conscious selecting and directing of educational change through group process. This means that decisions reached along the way are of the greatest importance in the learning experiences of children and youth and in the contribution which the school can make to the achieving of the good society. It is crucial, therefore, that such decisions and programs be made, as far as possible, on the basis of the best and clearest light we have, which is another way of saying that they should be based on our best knowledge, gained through research, evaluation, and experimentation. In this chapter it is our purpose to examine these activities as they apply to curriculum development in general and to see their implications for curriculum development in local school systems.

As used in this chapter, these terms mean the following things:

1. "Research" means the gathering and using of any evidence in the study of educational problems.
 2. "Evaluation" means the gathering, recording, and interpreting of evidence on student growth in educational objectives.
 3. "Experimentation" means one type of research—that which involves the use of controls to see what happens under given sets of conditions.
- "Research," then, is the comprehensive term which includes "evaluation" and "experimentation."

These terms must be looked at, however, not only in relation to logical definition, but in relation to emotional overtones. They are emotional symbols and as such have been used for both positive and negative purposes. On some occasions they are virtue words, on others devil words. While these emotional overtones undoubtedly add tang and excitement to educational controversy, they also interfere with clear communication. We do not propose to try to get rid of the emotion, but rather to attempt to see what it is and how it affects our action in curriculum development.

RESEARCH PROBLEMS AND ACTIVITIES

Research became a prestige symbol in the nineteenth-century university and has remained one in the university of the present. Graduate programs have been regarded primarily as education in research techniques. But the universities have defined research in a more severely limited sense than we are using in this chapter. To the university, research means original discovery of new truths, or facts, from basic sources. Research is not merely an arrangement or an interpretation of knowledge; it is a contribution to the store of knowledge itself. Basic to this conception of research is actual working with original, or source, data. There are, of course, certain esoteric qualifications of these statements, but they never wander far from the fundamental conception that research deals with discovery of facts not previously available for examination. Some university people use the term to include also the development of principles and generalizations based on these facts, while others include those activities under the heading of scholarship. Some would restrict the definition of research even more closely—to the gathering and discovery, not of facts in general, but of facts directed specifically to the testing of hypotheses, formulated as one step in the problem solving or reflective thinking process.

But the term "research" has been taken over by other agencies besides universities and in the process has lost its strict meanings. Popular magazines employ "researchers," whose job it is to accumulate the facts needed, for example, in an article on China. This activity is called "research" even though it may involve nothing more than looking up articles on China in a number of books and other magazines, or in reference works such as dictionaries and encyclopedias. Teachers in elementary and secondary schools have used the term "research" in a similar sense when they use "research activities"—primarily looking things up for use in class. Industry carries on a mixture of "pure research" and "applied research" directed mostly to the improvement of products. And in public school systems, particularly those maintaining a department of "research," the term has meant largely the gathering of official statistics on finance, enrollment, building maintenance, and the like.

Emotion, of course, has played a large role in the popular expan-

sion of the meaning of this term. So far as the university professor is concerned, the expansion is desirable since it permits him to include almost any professional activity under this general heading. But journalists, industrialists, etc. are also affected by the virtue connotations of the word and want to share in the general prestige. Research brings up pictures of gleaming laboratories, test tubes, atom-smashers, microscopes, all of these being popular symbols in our twentieth-century folklore. But in some circles research becomes a negative symbol in that it suggests the impractical, dry-as-dust "theorist." To counteract this, research workers outside universities have labored to build up the symbol of "applied research." So the emotional picture is by no means uniform, although the virtue connotations of the word are far more numerous and important than the devil connotations.

We favor the popular use of the term as the only one which is practical and consistent with the nature of curriculum development programs in public schools. For our purposes research means the gathering and interpreting of any evidence, from any source whatsoever, primary or secondary, that is useful and necessary in the study of educational problems. We need not only the original discovery of facts about educational process, but also the continual re-sorting, reaccumulation, rearrangement, and reinterpretation of many of these facts. Furthermore, research applies to every one of the five major phases of curriculum development: defining the purposes of education, formulating the all-school program, developing guide lines to the instructional fields, preparing aids for teachers, and teaching. Evidence gathered may be used both to provide a basis for formulating hypotheses and also to test hypotheses. Sometimes the former function is of the greatest importance. At the end of this chapter is a list of educational questions in the study of which research should play an important part.

Suppose, then, that we look at some of the research activities which might be carried on in local school systems in terms of the applications of that research to curriculum development. Many of these, of course, overlap. Some are defined in terms of the problems under investigation, while others are defined in terms of major techniques used.

Studies of the Needs and Problems of Children and Youth

The children and youth of any American community will, of course, have many needs and problems in common with those of the entire culture. These may be studied in any of the standard treatments of this subject.¹ In addition, however, there may be specific local needs and problems of importance in curriculum study. One way to get at these is through clinical procedures with emphasis on case histories. Fortunate is the school system with an adequate child study clinic, not only for the purpose of helping individual children with their problems, but also for the purpose of furnishing leads to the general problems and needs of youth in that community. The making of case histories will involve the use of a variety of procedures—tests, inquiry blanks, interviews, etc. Inquiry blanks may be used also as a means of securing data from a large population when the more intensive case history approach is not feasible.

As pointed out in Chapter II, discussions of case history materials carried on by teachers and lay people in small child study groups provide an excellent means of adult learning on this subject. Only, for this more informal purpose, it isn't always necessary to secure the complete coverage which is considered essential by case history clinical workers. In other words, a school system doesn't need to wait for the establishment of a child study clinic before its teachers can begin child study group discussions!

The data produced by studies of children's and youth's problems and needs provide important materials in defining the purposes of education. They form part of the psychological basis for the statement of such purposes. Such data should also apply to the other phases of curriculum development. For example, the need of high-school youth for adult social and economic status is of the greatest importance in setting up our guidance programs and in considering the desirability of school-directed work experience. The need for

¹ See, for example, Peter Blos, *The Adolescent Personality* (D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1941); Arthur T. Jersild and associates, *Child Development and the Curriculum* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1946); Caroline B. Zachry, *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence* (D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1940).

adjusting to the demands of a changing body at junior-high-school age has implications for the guide lines to the science program as an instructional field, for the resource units prepared in science, and for our instructional procedures in physical education, as well as other subjects.

Studies of the Needs and Problems of Young Adults During the Immediate Postschool Years.

Many high schools have conducted follow-up studies of their graduates and school leavers. These studies are designed to furnish data on the immediate postschool adjustment of youth to problems of employment, further education, family living, health, etc., and to get at the opinion of these young adults regarding the contribution of their school experience to their ability to deal with these problems. Again, while case history procedures are probably the most desirable to use, the local circumstances may limit the study to the use of inquiry blanks only.

As an example of a successful and valuable follow-up study conducted on an inquiry blank basis we may take that of Fortuna Union High School, Humboldt County, California. This school usually runs about 500 students, drawn not only from the local village but from a wide rural area. Excellent response has been secured from the graduates—101 returns out of 114 graduates in the class of 1941. Check was made on the occupational or advanced education adjustments of the graduates, on their use of leisure time, their participation in community organizations and the like. The graduates were asked to rate the effectiveness of the school in relation to important objectives. Ratings of “good,” “fair,” and “poor” were used. On “locating a job,” 58 percent of the graduates gave the school a rating of good, but on “preparation for marriage and family life,” only 32 percent made the same rating. While these are subjective judgments, they undoubtedly call attention to problems which can be discussed by faculty, administration, lay people, and youth in school. Such materials should be useful in studying not only the purposes of the school, but also the relative emphases in the various phases of the all-school program.

Studies of Interests

Much effort has been spent on the philosophical debate concerning the importance of student interests in the curriculum. From the research standpoint, the problem becomes one of actually getting at these interests. The most obvious way to get at the expressed interests of large numbers of children is through questionnaires, or inquiry blanks. During the Eight-Year Study carried on by the Progressive Education Association, much use was made of the Interest Index 8.2a, devised by the evaluation staff of that study,² and of the junior-high-school form 8.2j. This instrument was aimed at securing evidence on interests of children in various types of school activities, especially in relation to the pattern of school subjects. Data from these studies indicate possible relationships between interest patterns and maturity levels and provide one basis for sequence. In addition, such evidence is of value in studying the problems of individual children.

Interests may be studied also by observational techniques, not only in the classroom, but on the playground, in student activities, and in community participation. Studies of children's reading interests may be made by keeping count of the types of books chosen in a free reading program. Checks on movie attendance and on reactions to movies also provide interesting materials.

From the curricular standpoint, we should attempt to capitalize on the existing interests of children at all levels. But most people agree today that we cannot neglect the responsibility of trying to stimulate interests in "desirable" directions. The question what interests are desirable, of course, cannot be answered by research. It goes back to the way we interpret psychological and sociological realities in an effort to state the task of the school in modern society.

Studies of Difficulty and Readiness as Basis for Sequence

This type of research is also aimed at the bothersome question of sequence for the various grade levels. It has been used in an attempt

² See Eugene R. Smith, Ralph W. Tyler, and the Evaluation Staff, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress* (Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942), pp. 338-348.

to determine the point at which reading instruction should begin and the grade levels or age levels at which various topics in arithmetic might be introduced. The work of the Committee of Seven³ on placement of arithmetic topics had much good effect in bringing about at least a more humane policy! Always such work has to be subjected to the eternal qualification of individual differences. Generalizations concerning when long division should be introduced must be tempered by the realization that large numbers of children will be ahead of or behind schedule.

It is likely to be unrewarding for a local school system to engage in extensive research along these lines. The technical problems involved in this type of research are perplexing, and, as previously mentioned, the results are subject to much qualification. Occasionally it might be desirable to check the literature on the subject as a guide line to local practice and to repeat part of the research activities to see whether local children run close to the general average or not. At its best this type of research merely provides some cautions and is unlikely to stimulate much creative effort in seeing larger and more challenging tasks for public education.

Studies of Social Problems

The curriculum must be grounded in social realities. This means keeping as close as possible to first-hand data in our major social problems—health, use of leisure time, occupations, family living, intergroup relations, and the like. It is unlikely that school people will conduct fact-gathering research on these problems on a national basis, but it is a good idea to do so from time to time for the local community. For regional, national, and world materials, we shall need to go to published surveys carried on by private and governmental social agencies set up for those purposes. For example, the reports of the National Resources Planning Board and of the Temporary National Economic Committee of the 76th Congress should not have been neglected by curriculum workers. If such studies as these are too long and complex for immediate use, we can turn to summaries and interpretations, such as those provided in pamphlet

³ Carleton W. Washburne, "The Work of the Committee of Seven on Grade-Placement in Arithmetic," Ch. XVI, Part I, of the 38th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, *Child Development and the Curriculum*.

series, particularly the Public Affairs Pamphlets. These materials are of basic importance, not only in setting up the social task of the school, but also in strengthening the guide lines for the various school subjects and in securing better content and activities for many of our resource units.

Community Surveys

Much emphasis has rightly been placed on the study of local conditions through community surveys. These are an important type of research activity, not only for local school people, but for children and youth in school. It is wise, however, to survey one thing at a time, rather than to attempt a comprehensive survey of all social conditions at once. Naturally it is easier to make a survey of tangible factors, such as housing, employment, and health services, and school systems with limited time and facilities are wise to attempt such surveys first. But we now have excellent studies of other factors as well to serve as guides and models to those school systems that wish to go farther into community realities. The studies of class and caste relationships in Newburyport, Massachusetts,⁴ and in a Southern community⁵ open up many possibilities of getting at some of the problems which most deeply affect the lives and personal adjustment of many of our children in school. Of course, the Lynds' two reports on "Middletown" provide examples of survey work on about every type of problem important in community life today.

Of much importance also are local studies of pupil personnel—attempts to find out, particularly on the secondary level, who goes and who does not go to school, particularly in relation to socioeconomic factors. The state secondary curriculum revision program in Illinois has emphasized the need for such local studies and has assisted local groups in carrying them on.⁶

No amount of data gathered on a community survey, however, will automatically provide local teachers with the answers to educa-

⁴ William Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt, *The Social Life of a Modern Community* (Yale University Press, New Haven, 1941).

⁵ Allison Davis, Burleigh B. Gardner, and Mary R. Gardner, *Deep South: A Social Anthropological Study of Caste and Class* (University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1941).

⁶ Harold C. Hand, "For Whom Are the High Schools Designed?," *Educational Leadership*, VI, No. 6: 359 (March, 1949).

tional purposes and practices. The most important use of such data is probably to motivate further study and discussion. In such discussion and study groups the data may be analyzed and interpreted and in that process may modify considerably the conception of educational goals held by the group. But the philosophical framework in terms of which these data are analyzed must still come the hard way. A community survey will never provide a school system with a philosophy of education.

Every good teacher, of course, carries on a continuous type of "community survey" on an informal basis, especially in relation to the students in his own classes. He makes an attempt to get as much information as possible concerning the socioeconomic backgrounds of his students. In this he should be aided by the guidance or pupil personnel office, if he is located in a system large enough and wealthy enough to afford such services.

Studies of Teaching Methods

At one time this type of research dominated much of our educational activity. Great reliance was placed on controlled experimentation with matched groups as a means of demonstrating the superiority of one method over another. Lectures were contrasted with question-and-answer recitation, workbook exercises with socialized discussion, individual laboratory work with demonstrations. Then the educational fashion changed, and this type of experimentation went more or less into the discard. One reason for this was the difficulty of setting up proper experimental conditions in a public school system. Going through the careful techniques of pairing pupils for matched groups interfered with the normal processes of schedule making. More basic was the criticism that these experiments were carried on without consideration of important educational goals. Since it was easy to test acquisition of information, it seemed to be assumed that the method which produced the most information was the superior method. Theoretically, both these questions can be answered. School administrators should be willing to accept the difficulties involved in experimentation as part of their professional responsibilities—provided, of course, the experiment makes sense. Research workers should never give up the attempt to get objective means of gathering evidence on learning in areas other

than fact acquisition. But these conditions are hard to fulfill, and it is unlikely that we shall see much more experimentation with teaching methods in public school systems. At the same time it is difficult to see why this controlled experimentation type of research should fail to yield as fruitful results in education as in other areas. Perhaps the major difficulty lies in the fact that we cannot clearly differentiate one "method" from another as a basis for defining the experimental factor. As an example of a significant and informative type of "comparison" experiment we have the Lippitt studies of the effects of democratic and authoritarian environments on the behavior of groups of children.⁷

Studies of Adult Activities

It was once held that the school curriculum should teach children and youth how to do better the things which they would normally do in adult life anyway. This led to the type of research known as "activity analysis," in which adults kept detailed records of their activities at work, in the home, and in the community.⁸ A major curriculum study in the Los Angeles public schools was once conducted on this basis. Much criticism was directed at this approach, particularly from the standpoint that what adults were doing was no index of what they ought to be doing. It was also pointed out that these adult activities were too remote from children's present concerns to serve as a basis for the school curriculum. So, while the activity analysis movement aroused much discussion for a time, it did not continue as a major type of curricular research. Provided its limitations are understood, however, activity analysis research might provide us with some good leads for curricular study and discussion. Simply because we know, for example, what adults mostly do for recreation, we are not committed to a blind acceptance of that pattern for all time. On the other hand, there is no particular advantage to be secured in a state of ignorance on this matter. At least that knowledge tells us what we have to start with, and from there on

⁷ R. Lippitt and R. White, "The 'Social Climate' of Children's Groups," in R. Barker, J. Kounin, and H. Wright (editors), *Child Behavior and Development* (McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1943).

⁸ W. W. Charters, *Curriculum Construction* (Macmillan Co., New York, 1923), Ch. IV; Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum* (Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1924), Ch. II.

we can decide what changes in the pattern might be desirable. Probably the initial defect of activity analysis was that its proponents claimed too much; we may now be ready to work it into its proper place in the entire pattern.

Studies of Learning Outcomes

This type of research forms one aspect of the total evaluation process. Many school systems conduct it on a routine basis, administering certain standardized information tests every year or so. The data secured are used in connection with the study of problems of individual children, and, if they show good results, are useful in public relations activities. Administering and scoring such tests, plus the arrangement of the results in graphic or tabular form, constitute much of the work of research departments in many school systems today. Again, test results will not tell us what the children and youth in school ought to be learning, but they do tell us what, in a very limited area, they are learning, and thus can be used as a springboard into curriculum study and discussion activities. Lay people are particularly interested in this type of research and are often motivated to considerable curriculum activity as a result of it.

Studies of Expert Opinion

While we do not go to any one expert today to tell us the answers to our curriculum problems, it is sometimes of value to tabulate the thinking of a fairly large number of those who appear to qualify for membership in this category. One of the most interesting examples of curricular research of this type was carried on by Neal Billings in his study of generalizations basic to the social studies curriculum.⁹ He pulled out the generalizations found in scholarly works in history, geography, economics, sociology, and political science and arranged them in a pattern capable of application to the setting up of guide lines in social studies for the elementary and secondary schools. This study has furnished the basis for much discussion and analysis in many groups concerned with social studies curriculum.

This approach can also be used to see what various groups of teachers, curriculum workers, administrators, and educational phi-

⁹ Neal Billings, *A Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum* (Norwich and York, Baltimore, 1929).

losophers think of the relative importance of certain key areas of educational purposes. Such a study can be of value in calling attention of local curriculum workers to important areas which might otherwise be neglected. It does not mean that local curriculum workers will of necessity accept these areas simply because large numbers of other people are in favor of them. Above all things, it does not mean that we should try to "follow the trend"!

Studies of Practice in Other School Systems

We may want to find out not only what large numbers of other people think about something, but what other school systems are actually doing. The almost continuous interchange of inquiry blanks shows that many of us are now engaged in this kind of activity. We may want to know, for example, how many high schools similar to ours in size and area served are experimenting with combined history and English classes. Or we may want to find out how many school systems in our state offer general mathematics in the ninth or tenth grade. The same cautions concerning use and interpretation apply here as in surveys of expert opinion.

Studies of Scheduling Practices and Organization of the School Day

In Chapter III we dealt with the issues and problems of school-day organization and schedule as part of the whole matter of setting up the all-school program. Local school systems might well carry on continuous investigation of the impact which various types of scheduling structures make on the learning of the students, the morale of the faculty, the human relationships in the school, the guidance function, and the like. On the elementary level local school systems might put the emphasis on a study of departmentalization and nondepartmentalization, while on the secondary level attention might be put on such devices as the double- or triple-period class with one teacher. Such studies would depend much on procedures included in this chapter under "evaluation" and "experimentation."

Studies of Procedures in Curriculum Development

Much more attention could be given to research on the process of curriculum development itself. It might be used to validate or to indicate the lack of validation of practices such as child study con-

ferences, resource unit construction, and local workshops. On a less formal basis, school systems could carry on research to get at ways of improving the use of these techniques. There is great need for much further investigation along these lines in the future programs of curriculum development in American schools.

On all these types of research problems and activities it is desirable for the curriculum leadership group in the local system to know what has been carried on elsewhere. Otherwise there will be needless duplication. Of course, not all duplication is needless, but the local group cannot judge the need or lack of it without having some idea of what other people have done. Some person or group of persons in the curriculum or research departments in city and county systems might well systematically review and present research activities which have important bearing on the local curriculum development program.

EVALUATION

Evaluation activities are the key to all educational experimentation and to most educational research of any variety. They are also the key to much of our classroom teaching and so become part of curriculum development itself. But here again we run into word trouble. Like other educational terms, "evaluation" has gone through a honeymoon stage and to some extent through the stage of cynical disillusionment.

During the rosy dawn of educational research, much stress was placed upon measurement. Along with sociological and psychological research workers, we strove to introduce into our research the objectivity and concreteness allegedly found in research in the physical sciences. The famous generality that "everything that exists does so in some amount and can be measured," attributed to Thorndike, found widespread acceptance. Educational statisticians rose to top rank in the prestige levels of the teaching profession.

In due course came the reaction against this enthusiasm. The occasion, but not the cause, of the reaction was the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. Thirty secondary schools, freed from the traditional college entrance requirements, were to develop new curricular patterns. But, asked many, would this "new education" be any better than, or even as good as, the old? In other

words, would the new programs have any "value"? A staff of educational research workers, under the leadership of Ralph Tyler, was organized to study this question. Since there was so much concern with "value" in the program, it was easy to take the step of calling this group, not a "research staff" or a "measurement staff," but an "evaluation staff." And, of course, their job was to be something called "evaluation."

The word clicked. The term "measurement" lost much of its popularity. This is not to imply that the workers on the evaluation staff of the Eight-Year Study led a campaign against the older term. As a matter of fact, they tried carefully at all times to draw definitions which would clarify the interrelationships of the two terms and show the functions of each. But in all kinds of educational groups, the growing irritation with the measurement movement found expression in the embracing of this new term. Educators took up evaluation almost as though it were a fad or craze like miniature golf or gin rummy. All sorts of misunderstandings and abuses grew up. In fact, to a few members of our professional evaluation came to mean almost a deliverance from the statistical hard work involved in measurement.

In its best sense, the term "evaluation" did represent a larger concept than measurement. For one thing, evaluation as carried out by the Tyler staff included some philosophical analysis of the worthwhileness of educational outcomes to be tested. This staff also refused to accept the idea that objective evidence could be secured only on such outcomes as information. They put much emphasis on the development of instruments for gathering objective evidence on growth in the "intangibles"—reflective thinking, social attitudes, and the like. In addition, they popularized the concept of growth, placing the stress not so much on a child's accomplishment status at any given point as on the improvements in that status over a period of time with measures taken at many points.

These features of evaluation helped offset some of the limitations of previous educational experimentation. One of the examples of some of this experimentation had been the class-size studies. One summary of these studies concludes as follows: "The results of these semi-controlled and controlled experiments indicated that under typical teaching techniques, measurable pupil achievement is not

adversely affected by reasonably large classes.”¹⁰ The key words are “typical teaching techniques” and “measurable pupil achievement.” But all too often enthusiastic interpreters of these studies have concluded that large classes are “just as good” as small classes, no matter what!

Of course, evaluation itself went through a popularity stage followed by a let-down stage, but there has been no sharp reaction against the term. It simply is no longer regarded as a new educational gospel. This is probably a good thing for the term and also for education. The term “measurement” has likewise regained some of its lost status. For the most part the tendency has become to think of measurement as a tool in the larger process of evaluation and to regard it as an important and useful tool.

Evaluation, then, consists of the attempt to see whether desirable growth is taking place in students along the lines of important educational objectives. It means that we must go through the following steps in connection with the process. First, we must clarify and define the objectives in behavioral terms. Second, we must set up conditions, on paper or otherwise, for sampling behavior in relation to the objective—that is, for gathering evidence on the presence of this behavior. Some of this evidence may be quantitative and therefore involve measurement. Third, the evidence must be interpreted in relation to the objective under study, recorded in some form for further use, and adequately reported to those whose business it is to know about it.

What part, then, does evaluation play in the program of curriculum development? It enters first into the process of translating the large and comprehensive statements of the task of the school into specific behavioral objectives applicable to classroom teaching. It enters secondly into the process of teaching, since behavior-sampling comes in as part of our normal introductory, developmental, and concluding activities of units of experience. Since it enters teaching, it also enters the preparation of classroom teaching aids, and evaluation activities should form an important part of most resource units.

Where measurement was usually, but not necessarily, thought of

¹⁰ Fred von Borgerode, article on class size in Walter S. Monroe (editor), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, American Educational Research Association (Macmillan Co., New York, 1941).

as an end point in teaching, evaluation is considered as continuous and is just as important at the beginning as at the end of a project. This is particularly important if we want to study growth.

Evaluation activities include the following: All of these are examples of various types of observation procedures.

1. *Paper-and-pencil tests to sample behavior.* These include information tests, scales of attitude and/or opinion, and tests of abilities in reflective thinking and study processes.

2. *Anecdotal records.* This is a less formal type of observational procedure and may be used to record any behavior instead of being confined to behavior along particular lines. In fact, it is of the greatest importance for the teacher to record only the actual behavior and to keep the interpretation of that behavior separate from that recording.

3. *Rating scales.* These may be designed for self-rating or for rating others. They may be systematically developed with the most rigorous attention to statistical factors, or they may be used very informally as classroom tools.

4. *Behavior inventories.* These may include records of reading choices, movie attendance, expressed interests, and the like. The Eight-Year Study staff, for example, developed several interest indices, as well as a reading and a movie check list.

In relation to research, evaluation may be seen as that part of general research which seeks to provide evidence on change in behavior. It becomes fundamental in any type of research involving the study of learning outcomes. There is, of course, some research which does not of necessity involve evaluation.

EXPERIMENTATION

As a rule, evaluation activities do not try to get at the factor of cause. We may learn that the students in a given class made such-and-such growth in relation to such-and-such objectives. But unless we set up certain conditions, we must recognize that it is only on the basis of our subjective judgment, which may often be very accurate, that we can say why this growth took place. To get at cause and effect directly, we must engage in a particular type of research known as experimentation.

This term is used in two senses, one a very restricted and rigorous

sense, the other broader and more comprehensive. In the rigorous sense, "experimentation" means keeping all factors under control except one—the experimental variable. Usually this means at least two groups of students, one or more experimental groups and a control group, as nearly equal in all important factors except the experimental variable as we can make them. For example, if we wanted to study the effect of praise or blame on learning, we would try to set up three groups as nearly equal as possible in intelligence, reading ability, scholastic achievement, and general teaching procedures used. In one experimental group the teacher would use systematic praise, in a second systematic blame, and in the third would refrain entirely from praise or blame. We would use whatever evaluation devices were suitable to measuring such behaviors as we decided were important learning outcomes. If we found differences in growth, we would apply necessary statistical procedures to determine whether the differences were great enough to be significant. Or, to add further refinement, we might rotate the groups and give each group a sampling of each type of condition.

Such studies are difficult to set up and carry out, particularly in public school systems. But they are the only way of getting definitive information concerning the effect which a particular teaching technique or feature of the learning environment has upon learning.

The application of such studies to everyday educational practice has its limitations. Ordinary classroom situations can only rarely duplicate the exact conditions of the controlled classroom situation. As soon as we start teaching under ordinary conditions, we are in a different environment, to which the results of the controlled experiment may or may not apply. This is not to say that what we learn from controlled experimentation is useless; with a little common sense we can tell pretty well just about how far certain results might be applicable under ordinary circumstances. But it is to say that results must be interpreted with caution.

It means also that sometimes we may have to modify the orthodox conception of experimentation if we are going to have an experiment at all! For example, the Eight-Year Study taken as a whole was an experiment in the broader and more comprehensive sense referred to previously. Every student graduating from one of the

thirty experimental schools was paired with a graduate of a non-participating high school on the basis of a number of factors. The constant factors were carefully defined, and careful check was kept of the progress of the experimental and the control group through college or university. But the experimental variable was necessarily as broad as the ocean! It consisted merely of the fact that the experimental student had gone to a high school freed from traditional college entrance requirements, while the control student had gone to one which had not been freed. There was no common curricular pattern characterizing the experience of the students in the experimental group. And there were probably many important diversities in the school backgrounds of the members of the control group. The broad and comprehensive nature of the experimental variable simply had to be accepted as reality. There was simply no way of setting up an experimental variable in the more precise sense of that term. But for the broad purposes of the Eight-Year Study it made little difference. The results indicated that regardless of what was actually done in the experimental schools the presence of traditional college entrance requirements was not crucial to later success in college.

This brings up the question of comparing the results of "one curriculum" with the results of "another curriculum." Every so often we hear someone suggest that we ought to experiment with—that is, to "try out"—a "new curriculum" and see what happens. This problem brings up again the matter of definition of curriculum. Most educational workers today define curriculum as the total learning experience of the child. To describe accurately for experimental purposes all the features of a learning experience which make it different from another total learning experience would be very difficult. The best we can do if we want to hold to the more orthodox conception of experimentation is to vary for experimental purposes one specific feature of a total learning experience. In this case we would say that this-or-that particular feature of the curriculum seemed to have this-or-that effect on learning outcomes. But if we find it difficult to do even that much—that is, to pick out a specific feature of a curriculum and to keep all others constant—we must, like the workers in the Eight-Year Study, define our experimental

variable only in the broadest and most comprehensive terms and recognize that there will be *many* uncontrolled variables of undeterminable importance operating in the study.

We undoubtedly do need some studies of this kind today, but we also need to watch our language in connection with them. For example, someone might suggest that we run an experiment with the core curriculum. Here it is unwise to use the term in that sense, because it suggests that a core curriculum, whatever it may be, is totally and comprehensively different from any other total learning experience a child may have in the school. But the great majority of the features of a core curriculum learning environment would be similar to the features of any learning environment. So we would have to find the unique feature or features of the core curriculum environment and hold all the others constant. This presents monumental difficulties, and so we shall probably end up stressing the unique features and recognizing that many of the common features are operating uncontrolled. For while the students in both the experimental and the control group will undoubtedly carry on reading activities, the pattern of reading activities in the experimental group cannot be made identical with that of the control group for experimental purposes. To attempt to make them so would be to introduce an unbearable element of artificiality and unreality into the entire process.

There is, for example, one experiment needed in secondary education today, provided we define it in broad and comprehensive terms. We need to study the effects of the double- or triple-period common learnings class with one teacher as contrasted with the effects of single periods. There have been many hypotheses advanced in this connection, among the most important of which is that the chance of a teacher to know a smaller number of students over a larger block of time leads to better meeting of student needs. But we need to study the impact of such a scheduling provision not only on the learning of the students, but on the morale of the teaching force, the attitudes in the community, the school setup for student activities and work experience. Moreover, certain conditions would have to be put into the program. For one thing, all students in the school should be in the common learnings program. This does not mean that they are in such a class for the entire school day, nor that all

teachers have common learnings classes. But it does mean that the entire school should be so organized. Also, there should be consultant services to help the teachers, plus in-service educational opportunities and planning sessions in local workshops, conferences, and the like. Now if we set up a control group, it would have to consist of an entire school, desirably with similar consultant and in-service opportunities for the teachers. We should have to recognize that our experimental variable consisted of the double- or triple-period common learnings class, plus many other conditions more or less comparable, but still uncontrolled.

It should also be pointed out that such an experiment can be conducted only if all the teachers are sympathetic—not with the hypothesis itself, but with the idea that the hypothesis is important enough to warrant testing. This may necessitate a period of study and preparation leading up to the experiment. Simply to impose such a study on an unwilling staff would do little good either for experimentation or for the morale of the school.

QUESTIONS WE NEED TO STUDY

The following list contains a few of the questions which should be investigated in curriculum development. Perhaps some of them have seemingly obvious answers, but we must never commit ourselves to the idea that the obvious answer is of necessity the valid one. If we think we are far enough along to have an obvious answer, we should state that obvious answer as an hypothesis and subject it to testing. If no possible answers, obvious or otherwise, suggest themselves, we need to explore the questions sufficiently to suggest hypotheses.

I. Questions involving the roles of various groups.

1. In what parts of the school planning job do lay people take the most interest? How can lay people be effectively involved in these jobs? What good does it do? Should lay people be encouraged to take part in jobs beyond the ones in which they have an immediate interest? How can we do this? What procedures are effective in arousing lay interest?
2. What types of curriculum planning work do classroom teachers find rewarding and worth-while? Which do they regard as busy work? Why? What should be done about this?

3. How can we best involve children and youth in curriculum planning? What should be their role? What values are there in such participation?
4. What has been the influence of state legislatures and state school boards on curricular structure and planning procedures? What should it be? How can we better define the roles of these agencies?
5. Which groups exercise state-wide leadership in curriculum planning? What is or should be their role? How can they exercise it? What do we need to have more effective state-wide leadership?
6. What is the role of the local school administrator in curriculum development? What should it be? How can local school administrators carry out their proper roles?
7. What influence do local school boards have on the curriculum? What influence should they have? What is the role of the board in relation to lay participation in general?
8. What part has been played by accrediting associations and agencies? Has this been a desirable part?
9. What part has been played by interest groups (political, religious, economic, etc.) in curriculum planning? What should be the relationship of their participation to lay participation in general?

II. Questions involving process or procedure.

1. What is the significance of democratic group process for curriculum planning? How successful is this process in carrying out parts of the curriculum planning job? Should we try to make it more successful? How?
2. How do school subject committees work? What are important activities for such committees? How do the participants feel about this type of organization?
3. Does resource unit development really click with teachers? What do they get out of it? What does it do for their teaching?
4. How can we build and maintain participants' morale in curriculum programs? How can participants secure and maintain adequate belongingness, status and recognition, participation, security?
5. What are good ways of getting started in curriculum study programs?
6. What good are child study groups, with teachers, with lay people, with both?

7. What kinds of published materials are needed in curriculum study? For what purposes?
8. To what extent does published material get used? By whom? For what purposes? With what results?
9. What organizational frameworks are needed for curriculum planning involving lay people, state leadership, local leadership, teachers, accrediting agencies and associations, children and youth?
10. Who should pay the cost of curriculum study in public education? How much does it and should it cost? How much is it worth in relation to other activities?
11. How can curriculum consultants be used most effectively? Where? For what purpose?
12. What part should curriculum study play in the total job of teachers? Is this "after-hours" work or an integral part of the job? What is present practice on this? How does this relate to our concept of the length of the working year in modern professions?
13. What contribution has controlled experimentation made to curriculum progress? What should be its role in the future?
14. Where should local workshops, institutes, or conferences fit into curriculum programs? What have been, what can be, their contributions? Where does the university leadership function come into this?
15. What has been done with general, overall evaluations of effectiveness of schools? Has this been good? What do we need for the future?

III. Questions involving educational purposes, goals, directions, etc.

1. What implications does our knowledge in the area of human psychology, personality, etc. have for educational purposes?
2. What implications does our knowledge of the learning process have for educational purposes?
3. What implications does our knowledge of social organization, change, and control have for educational purposes?
4. How does philosophy relate to the stating of educational purposes?
5. What does the democratic faith mean for educational purposes?
6. What possibilities are there for interrelating the materials in points 1-5 to form a coherent theoretical basis for educational purposes?

7. In a school curriculum study program how can we effectively approach the study of the materials in points 1-5 and keep them related to the everyday problems of teachers, parents, children, etc.?
8. What are the various purposes for which we use written statements of educational goals or purposes? What forms and manners of stating purposes seem to be appropriate for these various purposes?
9. What part in developing educational purposes should be played by state leadership, local leadership, teachers, lay people, children and youth? How?
10. What are the relative merits of various approaches to the study of educational purposes, such as the child study approach, the problems approach, and the analysis of democracy approach?

IV. Questions involving the all-school program.

1. What should be the contributions of student activities to curricular objectives? What is the actual record on this subject? What new possibilities in student activities should be tried out? What are the relative merits or lack of them in point systems, scholarship requirements, etc. in student activities programs?
2. What should be the relationship between curriculum and guidance? How can we arrive at satisfactory delimitations of each function? Where do guidance and curriculum overlap? What should be the guidance role of classroom teachers? What does the record show on this matter?
3. What should be the contributions of work experience to curricular objectives? What has the record shown in the way of accomplishments for work experience so far? What are the relative merits of various types of work experience programs?
4. What community service and community study activities have important curricular values? How can these be evaluated? What are the relative merits of various approaches to community activities?
5. What features of human relationships in the all-school program contribute to democratic atmosphere and democratic learnings?
6. What are the relative merits of combining or not combining present subject designations into broad fields, or fusion groups?
7. What are the merits or lack of them of specialization and departmentalization at the elementary-school level?
8. What are the values proposed for core or common learnings classes? What do we know about results so far? What ap-

proaches might be made for further experimental study of this possibility?

9. What is a desirable balance between required and elective subjects in high school? What are the advantages and disadvantages of track plans? What other possibilities might accomplish the same purpose as track organization?
10. What are the possibilities for more flexible class scheduling and larger time blocks? What values are in these if we could have them?

V. Questions involving organization within subject areas or in a common learnings program.

1. What are the legitimate bases for establishing scope and sequence patterns in the various subject areas, broad fields, or common learnings programs? What contribution from child development studies? From needs studies? From developmental tasks studies?
2. How narrowly or broadly should centers of interest for various developmental levels be defined? What span of years should be used in defining developmental levels—grade by grade, groups of grades, or what?
3. What is the most useful form for course of study publications or curriculum guides in the broad fields, subject areas, or common learnings?
4. How can all-school philosophy or purposes be related to the objectives in the various broad fields, subject areas, or common learnings program?
5. What should be the roles of state leadership and local leadership in such preparation?

VI. Questions involving preparation of guide lines or aids on paper for teachers.

1. What types of such guide lines or aids are most practical and useful? Which most consistent with the democratic philosophy of education?
2. Who can most advantageously prepare such materials? What are the roles of the state department, local leadership, etc.?
3. What values are there in resource units as guide lines or aids?

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Suppose you are asked to present a P.T.A. lecture on "The Contribution of Research to Advancement in Education." Your group includes laymen who are highly conscious of the contribution of research to in-

- dustrial and technological development and are sincerely interested in seeing research possibilities in the schools. Outline your presentation, state the definition of "research" you would use, and develop for illustrative purposes one section of your outline.
2. What, in your opinion, should be the role of experimentation in education? How would you define this term? Give examples of educational problems to which experimentation might be applicable.
 3. To what extent, in your opinion, is the distinction between evaluation and measurement one of importance? If you think this distinction is important, outline your reasons for so thinking. If you do not think it important, which term would you use, or would you use them interchangeably? Why?
 4. What is the relationship between evaluation and educational objectives? Do you agree that evaluation should be involved in the beginning as well as in the end of an educational process? If so, what do you mean by that statement? If not, how can you justify limiting it to any one of those phases?
 5. What, in your opinion, is the role of hypothesis formulation in the research process? List illustrative important hypotheses in education which might be studied.
 6. Do you feel that your own school system needs a research program? If so, for what reasons? What kind of research? If not, indicate what activities you would substitute for research-type activities, if any. Why do you think these would be more important?
 7. Identify several examples of significant problem areas which you feel need study in most public school systems today. What contributions do you think research, evaluation, or experimentation might make to the solution of these problems?

»» IX ««

THE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT MOVEMENT IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

Curriculum development has been in one sense the attempt to do a necessary piece of work. But it has also been characterized by much zealous enthusiasm and has from time to time taken on the features of a cult. As such it has aroused varieties of emotional reaction from school people and the public. Those in favor of the movement have perhaps claimed too much and promised too much. On the other hand, they have sometimes met with responses of cynicism, disillusionment, repugnance, and in some cases outright and militant opposition.

It may be desirable to draw a distinction between curriculum development as a band-wagon movement, on the one hand, and as a continuing responsibility, on the other. The curriculum and the necessity of working on it will be with us as long as we continue to operate schools. We need, therefore, to examine the past activities and the future possibilities of curriculum development in American education. We need to draw from all sources, including the band-wagon movement, valid principles of curriculum work to guide our work for the future. In this chapter an attempt is made to sketch some of the items we shall need to consider in making this examination.

STAGES WE HAVE PASSED THROUGH

Our present situation in curriculum development is one point in a continuous historical process. To see a few of the ways in which our past has led up to our present, we arbitrarily identify four previous stages: (1) that of following and adapting the curriculum of the European heritage; (2) that of defining curriculum through national committees of experts; (3) the scientific measurement move-

ment; (4) the society-centered, democratic "curriculum development" movement. Perhaps today we are entering a new stage, as yet unidentified by name, in which the concepts of social dynamics will play a large part.

Following and Adapting the European Heritage

A number of complex historical factors came together to produce the educational pattern characteristic of seventeenth-century culture on the European continent and in the British Isles. This pattern was symbolized by the humanistic secondary school, a product of the Renaissance, dedicated to the mastery of the ancient classics, plus selected features of the old "seven liberal arts" curriculum. The mastery of Latin and Greek was seen as the means of liberating man from medieval other-worldliness so that he could enjoy and improve the life of this world. As time went on, however, the mastery of Latin and Greek became more an end in itself and came to depend upon the theory of formal discipline for its justification.

It was one version of this humanistic secondary school which came to New England as the Boston Latin Grammar School in 1635. Along with it came the neighborhood dame school for small children, an institution of a different order. The New England colonists used this as a base for developing their later idea that it was a community responsibility to guarantee to all children the opportunity of literacy. But humanism was still the dominating ideal of the intellectual and social elite.

The next wave of curriculum discussion and change also came from Europe. It was set in motion by the eighteenth-century Enlightenment and produced fervent enthusiasm for the possibilities of science. Benjamin Franklin combined this enthusiasm with his own ideas about a "practical" education to originate the academy. The next step was the virtual combination of the scientific emphasis with Latin and Greek to make the curriculum of the actual American academy of the nineteenth century—which was far removed in practice from Franklin's original idea.

Even at this period, however, a parallel influence developed, especially in the curriculum of the emerging elementary schools of the early 1800's. This was the influence of the textbook. The textbook influenced not only the specific material taught under the various

headings, but also the choice of course headings. In 1783 Noah Webster issued *The First Part of a Grammatical Institute of the English Language*, known to posterity as the blue-backed speller. This book helped to establish spelling as a major curricular activity. In words which suggest some features of contemporary curriculum work, Clifton Johnson pointed out that "One of the first effects of the publication of the *Grammatical Institute* was to make spelling a craze."¹ Similarly, Jedidiah Morse put geography into the school program with his *Geography Made Easy*. It has continued to be the case through each stage of curriculum making that the living classroom experience often depends more on the products of textbook authors than upon the pronouncements of curriculum leaders. This fact points to the need of developing at all times the best possible text materials—that is, those in closest harmony with agreed-upon, valid objectives of education, with the features of democratic curriculum development, and with the best kinds of teaching-learning activities in the classrooms.

Throughout the rest of the nineteenth century the European heritage remained dominant. The new institution of the high school took over most of the features of the established academy curriculum. American universities followed the lead of German universities. Horace Mann and other reformers in elementary education took their cues from the Prussian folk schools, although the precise amount and nature of German influence on our elementary-school pattern has been a matter of controversy. Even the introduction of manual arts was influenced by the sloyd movement from the Scandinavian countries. So it appears that one of the major activities of curriculum development in the nineteenth century consisted of looking to see what was going on in Europe and adapting it to our purposes and circumstances.

National Committees

The next stage in our curriculum history consisted of having small national committees go to work on the various school subjects. This movement probably arose out of a feeling that we should start doing something ourselves more consciously to order and direct the school

¹ Clifton Johnson, *Old Time Schools and Schoolbooks* (Peter Smith, New York, 1935), p. 172.

program. The form it took probably arose out of a preoccupation with the selection of content and the feeling that a small group of scholars in the content fields were most competent to make this selection. There are still many people today who feel that the only efficient way to develop curriculum is to get a small group of experts together and let them work it out.

The central committee of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies, meeting from 1891 to 1893, set out to get answers to very specific questions, such as the age at which children should begin studying a given subject, the number of hours a week and number of years which should be devoted to it, and the topics which "may reasonably be covered during the whole course."² In their report, the committee decided against making provision for individual differences and declared that "every subject which is taught at all in a secondary school should be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil so long as he pursues it."³ It should be noted that of this group which made such definite statements concerning learning, not one "was either a psychologist or a sociologist or had close contact with children and youth."⁴

As other educational problems came up for study, the same national committee approach continued to be used. Results of varying quality were achieved. One of the best and most influential reports came from the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, with its "seven cardinal principles." It was recognized that national committees might serve useful purposes for challenging study and examination of key issues and problems, and it was along this line that the Briggs committee on issues and functions of secondary education did a good job. Today we continue to recognize this type of committee work in the existence of and prestige accorded to the Educational Policies Commission of the N.E.A. But the day has gone by when we expected a national committee of any kind to make specific, detailed recommendations for curriculum structure.

² Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies (American Book Co., New York, 1894), pp. 6-7, as cited in J. Paul Leonard, *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum* (Rinehart & Co., New York, 1946), p. 147.

³ Cited in Leonard, *op. cit.*, p. 149.

⁴ Leonard, *op. cit.*, p. 149.

The Scientific Measurement Movement in Curriculum

The movement for the scientific study of education brought with it the scientific determination of curricular objectives and materials. Bobbitt and Charters led the movement to arrive at curricular objectives by a quantitative determination of adult activities. Billings made an excellent analysis of basic generalizations in the social sciences held by a large number of authorities in those fields. Washburne and the Committee of Seven tried to get at the most favorable age levels for the introduction of operations in arithmetic.

In the public schools, this scientific measurement emphasis was translated into the writing of detailed course of study materials. Teachers were drafted for service on committees to prepare content outlines for the various instructional fields. Theoretically, this content selection was to serve purposes scientifically and objectively predetermined. Curriculum development was seen as proceeding logically from objectives determined in the initial phase of the program, through selection and arrangement of materials, to the tryout of the materials. The tryout was supposed to proceed along scientific lines and to give the answer to the problem of retaining, selecting, or rejecting curriculum content.

In the general reaction against measurement and in favor of evaluation, there was a parallel reaction against scientific determination of the curriculum. After these reactions and counterreactions had shaken down, however, it was seen that although scientific evidence could not determine the curriculum, it could provide a great deal of useful evidence for the study of curriculum problems. Research workers in the Eight-Year Study, for example, accumulated much fresh material on children's and youth's interests. The work of the American Youth Commission, particularly in the Maryland study, brought forth much material useful in the analysis of adolescent needs. Of particular interest has been the work on the educational implications of class differences, such as indicated in Warner and Lunt's *Social Life of a Modern Community* and Davis's *Deep South*.

But it is important to recognize that no body of research material, no matter how scientifically derived, can objectively settle the question of curricular purposes. The implications for curricular action to

be drawn from such data as those in the Maryland youth study depend on your social orientation and general point of view. So while we can't get along without data, we mustn't expect any body of facts to give us the answer to where we should go.

The Society-Centered Democratic Movement

This is the movement which has given rise to the greatest amount of controversy. It has seemed to be almost impossible to write or talk about this movement without falling into the temptation to indulge in uncritical laudation or in bitter caricature.

It might be said that this movement combined a variety of possible reactions against the three previous curriculum movements in American education. For one thing, it was definitely a revolt against following tradition, European tradition or any other variety. It was hooked up to the pragmatic-experimental philosophy and its distrust of the traditional philosophies, which were for the most part European in origin. Then, in the second place, it was a revolt against the kind of prestige authoritarianism symbolized by the committee movement. This revolt featured the idea that the classroom teachers of our country knew as much about what ought to be done as a small group of "experts." In fact, one feature of the movement was the use of the term "expert" as a negative symbol! And, in the third place, the movement represented a revolt against the tyranny of quantitative measurement, which was denounced as atomistic, mechanistic, and deterministic in its direction and influence.

The movement also revolted against some of the characteristic activities of the preceding movements. It rejected the "quest for certainty," at least in the attempt to discover and state absolutes. Since the small committee movement had emphasized the outlining of content, the new curriculum movement rejected course of study writing and went so far as to discredit getting anything down on paper. One of the characteristic activities of the "scientific" students of education had been the conducting of experimentation, and such studies, particularly if employing statistics, became suspect in the new curriculum movement.

Two influences helped give further shape to this movement. One was the rising world conflict between democracy and the totalitarian ideologies. The new curriculum movement took much of its inspira-

tion from democracy, particularly as characterized by John Dewey.⁵ As an example of this inspiration, witness the formulations of the Commission on Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association in the Eight-Year Study.⁶ This enthusiasm for democratic living led into some important activities. Emphasis on respect for personality led to much constructive study of children's needs and problems. Group coöperation led to the study of planning techniques. Free play of intelligence led to much emphasis on reflective thinking, particularly symbolized in the efforts of the Eight-Year Study Evaluation Staff to gather evidence on growth in the behaviors of reflective thinking.

The other of the two influences mentioned in the previous paragraph was the depression and a consequent emphasis on political, social, and economic problems. There was much discussion of social change. Planning was in the air, and the responsibility of the government in participating in the solution of social and economic problems was widely discussed. It was natural in this environment to insist upon great emphasis in the school program on the study of major social problems and the gaining of insights necessary for participation in the shaping of an advancing and improving society.

It seems possible, then, to say what this movement was against and what it was for. It was *against*:

European philosophical traditions, particularly those stressing "absolutes."
Authoritarianism exercised by "experts."

Course of study writing as a curriculum activity.

Scientific determination of curricular objectives and materials, particularly as symbolized by quantitative and statistical studies.

Mechanistic conceptions of the learning process.

It was *for*:

Seeking the roots of educational purposes in American traditions.

Pragmatism and experimentalism.

Emphasis on social, political, and economic problems in the school program.

Widespread teacher participation in curriculum development.

⁵ John Dewey, "Education and Social Change," *The Social Frontier*, III: 238 (May, 1937).

⁶ V. T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky, *Reorganizing Secondary Education* (D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1939), pp. 68-75.

Organismic conceptions of the learning process.

More flexible, informal curricular materials, when written down at all.

More emphasis on philosophy and less on science in arriving at curricular purposes.

Democracy as a way of life, particularly as symbolized by respect for personality, group planning, and reflective thinking.

Naturally the proponents of this movement sought for means to carry these ideas into effect. One means was to have classroom teachers work on the curriculum. The purpose of this was to get a more popular base of participation and to offset the old course of study writing by experts. But it wasn't easy to help teachers find constructive and tangible ways of exercising their influence in participation. So the tendency was either to relapse to course of study writing, only this time by large groups of teachers rather than by small groups of experts, or to go off on intangible and vague activities which caused widespread teacher frustration. Ultimately resource unit development was worked out as an ideal type of teacher participation.

Out of all this ferment came the workshop, one of the most dynamic enthusiasms in the history of American education. The workshop was designed as an experimental project in democratic in-service teacher education and as such opened up many promising leads and activities. Today we tend not to take battle for or against workshops, but to try to use workshop techniques in appropriate settings for the achievement of those purposes for which they appear to be particularly well suited.

Unfavorable reaction, of course, arose against the entire democratic, society-centered movement. The story of this reaction would feature many ungraceful descents from the popular band wagon. But the movement has still exhibited much vitality. One continuing feature of it has been the emphasis on interaction and group dynamics.

DOES CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT MAKE SENSE TODAY?

One of the most serious attacks against the point of view and the activities of the curriculum development movement has come from

those who feel that there just isn't time enough left to plan carefully and deliberately for the future. These critics point out that time is running short, that we have had enough talk and now must have action. While these critics do not always carry their thinking to logical next steps, there will probably be other critics who will do so for them. The next logical step, and a fearful one it is, consists of the proposal that we must set up authoritarian leadership to tell us what to do and how to do it.

This attack has, of course, been stimulated by the atom bomb. We are told that war may wipe out the nations of the earth before the allegedly cumbersome machinery of curriculum development can swing into effect.

What about possible answers to such viewpoints? They depend upon the relative amount of time left in the world. There are two main possibilities. One is that destruction is practically upon us and that it can be averted only by mass public opinion exerted throughout the world. If this be true, then the major emphasis should be placed on adult education. Even an authoritarian-derived curricular improvement for children wouldn't have time enough to function. If time is as short as this, even the demand for having somebody give us the answers becomes impractical.

On the other hand, we may have time over a period of years before the crisis finally develops. We may have five, ten, or twenty years. In this case there is time for the machinery of democratically developing curricula to take effect. There is time, not to waste, but to use, for mature and deliberative democratic planning, for children and for adults, in schools and in the social world outside the school. If the viewpoints concerning curriculum development have any validity whatsoever, they should be all the more applicable because of the grave social crisis in which we have found ourselves. For curriculum development becomes in its very nature the attempt to guide educational change and social change in desired directions and in an orderly fashion, using means consistent with the democratic goals for which we are striving.

The demand for speed should therefore not be interpreted as a demand for haste. The urgency of the condition of mankind today should not be used to justify educational authoritarianism in any form whatsoever.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR THE FUTURE

The society-centered, democratic movement in the curriculum work of the 1930's represented a stage in the development of American education and summarized, although in protest, some of the most important features of preceding movements. As we create an evolving pattern for the future, it will contain features of the recent society-centered, democratic movement as well as features of those which went before. The following principles are suggested here as bases for future curriculum work, and an attempt is made in each case to suggest a reason for including it.

Comprehensiveness

The curriculum should continue to be viewed as including all the learning experiences which children have under the auspices of the school. It should not be restricted solely to formalized classroom instruction. This viewpoint is validated by the psychological fact that children learn from many other aspects of their school environment. All phases of the school program should be continuously evaluated in the light of whatever philosophical criteria seem most useful and desirable. This means, of course, that formalized classroom instruction must be included. Unless we are prepared to throw this feature of education out of the school entirely, we are obligated to try to make it as effective as possible in the light of the democratic philosophy of education.

Coöperativeness

The democratic curricular theorists were right in revolting against the idea of small committees dominating curricular development. Here are five good reasons why widespread participation is important:

1. Curriculum study should be a learning experience for all concerned, and such learning experience can be secured only through participation.

2. It should build up the security and status of teachers. This is

impossible for the onlookers and passive absorption people. They just tend naturally to feel left out and resentful.

3. Best action results from best ideas, and best ideas are secured only when ideas from many sources get opportunity for expression. Contributions from all involved must be secured.

4. Educational change must in its details vary from community to community and therefore cannot be settled in all its features from the top down or by a group remote from the local situation.

5. The total job is so complex that no small group of people, however expert, can bring to it all the skills and understandings needed.

Still, the constructive roles of leadership and expertness must be recognized and used. Small groups of experts may well prepare materials to guide the discussion and interaction of many others. But these should be materials to guide and not to dominate. We need more and more testing out in practice of possible roles for leadership groups, teachers in general, lay people, and children and youth in the various phases of curriculum development.

Continuity

The idea that curriculum development should be a continuous process rather than a series of spasmodic revisions was stressed repeatedly throughout the 1930's. It has seemingly become a commonplace. Periodic course of study revision with long stretches of inactivity between seems to have few if any defenders. We recognize that the "new curriculum" must be born anew every day in every teaching and learning situation. This means a new type of curriculum material. The old massive telephone directory course of study has gone out and in most situations is replaced by brief, flexible, informal documents which can be quickly and easily modified. Problems of modern society keep changing continuously, and at the same time there is a continuous barrage of new materials, teaching ideas, and the like. Only a continuously developing curriculum program can adequately serve teachers and learners under these conditions.

Concreteness

Some curriculum programs have suffered from too much vagueness and abstraction. People have come away from some curriculum

discussions feeling not that they disagreed with the ideas expressed but that the ideas suggested an elusive air of unreality. Part of this has resulted from the distrust of some curriculum theorists for getting materials down on paper. Some has resulted from a dualistic tendency to separate theory from practice, to go along with the latest jargon, but to keep one's own counsel so far as everyday operation is concerned. Regardless of origin, this vagueness has been disconcerting and frustrating to the friends of curriculum development movements and most encouraging to the enemies.

There is no doubt that a feeling of concrete accomplishment goes with getting things down on paper. Now the fact that many wrong things were put down on paper before should not bar us from putting down the right things now. Teachers get just as much satisfaction out of getting resource units down on paper as they did out of writing or using courses of study. The need is to promote these and other means of achieving concreteness without loss of flexibility.

Another possible means of achieving concreteness is to talk about specific features of the school program. The organismic psychology, with its integration emphasis, led some people to feel that you could never properly talk about anything in terms of its parts. So, instead of thinking of curriculum, for example, in fairly sharp and distinct terms, we rolled everything together into a colorless "whole" that had few distinguishable features. It might help, in addition to saying that curriculum deals with all the children's learning experiences, to indicate that we mean formalized classroom instruction, guidance, work experience, student activities, and community participation. True, these items overlap and are continuously interrelated, but we need to establish occasionally the idea that we are talking about something in the real world and not dwelling in an integrated cloud-cuckoo land.

Democracy

The democratic ideology should, of course, provide us with our major guiding criteria. Probably this has been the most enduring and outstanding contribution of the democratic, society-centered curriculum movement. Our generation has been called upon to witness the testing of this democratic faith against several forms of totalitarian aggression. What more significant conception do we have,

then, to provide the basis for our future in curriculum development?

Various ways of looking at democracy were discussed in Chapter II of this book as means of getting into curriculum study in faculty groups. We should like at this point to call attention again to the threefold conception which served as a guide line during the society-centered, democratic curriculum movement and to indicate leads to some of the curricular implications.⁷

1. *Respect for personality.* This means the importance of people, individual human beings. Adherence to this point of view in curriculum work leads to the study of individuals—their interests, their problems, their needs, their developmental tasks. It leads not to the exclusion of subject matter, but rather to seeing subject matter as made for the child, rather than the other way round. It implies also much attention to individual differences, not only in terms of adapting the program to the individual, but in terms of building the program on a base of individual problems and needs. From this follows the importance of developing a variety of activities and materials which can be carried out and used by differing individuals. And, of course, any curriculum program based on respect for personality will put emphasis on mental health, not only as an objective of education, but as a characteristic of the curriculum development process itself. The curriculum development program should provide adequate opportunities for all participants to maintain belongingness, participation, status, and security in the group process.

2. *Mutual individual and group responsibility.* This feature of democracy offsets any possible undesirable overemphasis on individualism. It stresses not only rights, but responsibilities.

If we accept this feature of democracy, then the process of developing curriculum must be a group process, characterized by widespread participation and contribution from many sources. This provides further reason for rejecting curriculum making by small committees of experts, but also challenges us to make the most effective possible use of experts in the group process relationship.

Effective group process should characterize not only the curriculum development movement itself, but also the teaching which is carried on in our schools. This leads to emphasis on the skills neces-

⁷ John Dewey, *loc. cit.*; V. T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky, *loc. cit.*

sary for effective group process, particularly the skills of planning and discussion. The implication of this is more pupil-teacher planning in our schools and the development of those kinds of curriculum materials which facilitate pupil-teacher planning. Such materials are characterized by flexibility and richness of suggestions, and by absence of any cut-and-dried prescription of content to be covered or procedures to be followed. Since resource units appear to be consistent with this need, we find in this second feature of democracy additional justification for resource unit building as an important curriculum activity.

3. *Free play of intelligence.* Acceptance of this principle leads to much emphasis on developing the behaviors of reflective thinking and accounts for the concern of the Eight-Year Study with this objective. It means also that while every school experience need not be a problem, still there should be provisions for some problem solving activities at every educational level.

Local Determination

The "final" determination of the nature of the learning experience of course takes place at the point of learning itself. Only the pupil-teacher or learner-teacher relationships can set the stage for this determination. It is hoped that the precise nature of the learner-teacher relationship in each learning situation is arrived at through coöperative planning.

From this it follows that the large guide lines provided for the aid of teachers and learners in determining their experience become more and more suggestive and less and less obligatory as we get farther away from the teacher-learner situation itself. The course of study framework should be individual to each school, but derived from suggestions offered in city and county guide lines. Similarly, the city and county guide lines should be developed after consideration and critical evaluation of suggested state-wide guide lines. But, in general, state guide lines should not be prescriptive for city and county systems, and city and county guide lines should not be prescriptive for individual schools.

The principle of local determination has been attacked on the basis that modern transportation and communication have minimized local differences. This point could be argued back and forth,

but regardless of this point, there still remains the more important point—that local people will effectively and intelligently use only what they have a part in developing. And this is exactly as it should be. Passive absorption of decisions reached higher up is not likely to lead to dynamic, creative teaching! So local determination it must be, and the more local the better. At the same time we recognize the function of state-wide leadership in stimulating, suggesting, pointing pathways, and raising issues for discussion and study.

Social Orientation

This last principle emphasizes the necessity of building the school program in terms of social objectives and criteria. It is based on the conviction that there is no conflict between society-centeredness and child-centeredness, and that the needs of children as individuals will be met most adequately in a good social environment.

The curriculum program therefore looks at the real work of society today and draws much of its inspiration and guidance from a study of major areas of social problems, such as health, use of leisure time, intergroup relations, international relations, and public opinion. This does not mean that the school is supposed to build the new social order, but that the school has a part to play along with other agencies of society in shaping our major social directions. The school's main job, of course, is with individuals—to develop in individuals qualities of effective participation in a democratic society. But this means that the school must know the qualities needed, and to do this it must be aware of the major social problems and society's characteristics. The curriculum will include for children and youth many experiences of participating in the study and solution of social problems in the local community and in the larger culture.

SUMMARY OF GUIDING PRINCIPLES AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Our viewpoint concerning the desirable future characteristics of curriculum development work may, then, be summarized as follows:

Curriculum development programs should be concerned with all educative features of the school program, not with formalized class-

room instruction alone. They should feature widespread participation of many teachers, lay people, children and youth, administrators, supervisors, etc., and while utilizing the advice and suggestions of small groups of experts, should not be dominated by them. The programs should be continuous rather than characterized by periodic revisions with periods of relative inactivity between revisions. Every effort should be made to translate ideas into concrete action and to get down on paper such materials as will facilitate action. The features of the democratic way of life should serve as guide lines for the program and as criteria of its successful development. Curriculum programs should be socially oriented and should reflect a close working relationship of school and society.

To help carry out such programs, we suggest the following continuing responsibilities for the various groups concerned with curriculum:

I. Classroom teachers.

1. Continuing study of the purposes of education from the standpoint of critically analyzing and evaluating all classroom teaching and other school practices in relation to accepted criteria.
2. Working closely with administrators, lay people, and children and youth, in setting up the features of the all-school program.
3. Contributing suggestions and ideas to, and sharing in the preparation of, guide lines for the instructional fields.
4. From time to time (but not all the time) working individually or with small groups to prepare resource units and other teaching aids.
5. Carrying out in all teaching activities the fundamental democratic criteria of human relationships and using teaching aids effectively to help with this process.

II. Children and youth in school.

1. Taking part with other groups (lay people, teachers, etc.) in determining the basic needs and clarifying the purposes of the school.
2. Taking effective part in pupil-teacher planning to set the environment for good learning experiences.
3. Sharing with teachers, lay people, and administrators some of the decisions involved in setting up features of the all-school program.

III. Lay people.

1. Taking a vital and continuing part in study and discussion of the purposes of education.

2. Sharing in the decisions involved in setting up the basic features of the all-school program.

IV. Local leadership (city and county administrators and curriculum committees).

1. Facilitating local discussion and study of educational purposes by lay people, teachers, and children and youth.
2. Studying the problems involved in setting up features of the all-school program and recommending policies to be discussed and evaluated by teachers, lay people, and children and youth.
3. Setting up means in the local system to make maximum effective use of help from state leadership.
4. Directing attention of school boards to specific needs—local needs, released time for teacher participation, etc.
5. Taking steps to help local teachers adapt state guide lines for local use.
6. Making available to local teachers resource units and other teaching aids from the state.
7. Seeing to it that local needs, circumstances, and suggestions come to the attention of state leadership.

V. State leadership.

1. Aiding the local study of educational purposes by developing study guides, etc.
2. Suggesting sequences from kindergarten through secondary school for the instructional fields and for a core, or common learnings, organization.
3. Providing consultants who can work in the field with local groups in defining the purposes of education, setting up the all-school programs, and developing local modifications of state-suggested sequences and guide lines.
4. Furnishing resource units and other types of teaching aids.
5. Stimulating local groups to develop resource units and teaching aids.
6. Helping to prepare city and county supervisors for their responsibility in helping classroom teachers use resource units to preplan and to carry on pupil-teacher planning.
7. Influencing lay action through presenting curricular needs and problems and raising discussion in state-wide lay organizations, school board conventions, etc.

Curriculum development will go forward with speed and effectiveness only when all five of these groups are working in the process. Each one is essential. A curriculum program without classroom teacher participation would be clearly unthinkable today, for it

would leave out the group most concerned in its application. A curriculum program without lay participation would leave out the majority of the people who should decide the major educational directions of our times. A curriculum program without children and youth would leave out the majority of those for whose direct benefit the curriculum is intended to operate. A curriculum program without local leadership would either become chaotic or fall under rigid control for some remote central authority. A curriculum program without state leadership would become parochial in its outlook and fail to make its maximum contribution to the conscious directing of educational change in the larger society.

Likewise, a curriculum program will do the most good only if it affects all phases of possible curriculum activity. It must affect on a widespread basis the conscious direction of education along the lines of educational purposes on which there can be substantial agreement. It must affect the way we set up the features of a school program to carry out such purposes. It must affect the teaching of the major instructional fields and of the common learnings program. It must affect the kinds of materials prepared by and for teachers to help them plan for their work of planning with students. It must cut deeply into teaching practices and teacher-pupil relationships.

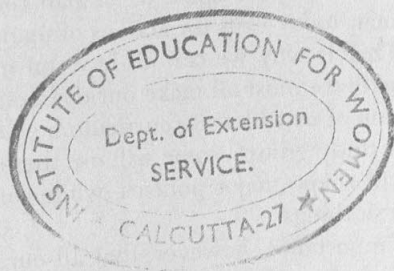
Sometimes we say that we want not talk, but action, in curriculum work. But desirable action often includes much talking things over, much reflective thinking, much meditative and contemplative study. It also includes making desirable changes in school program organization, in the materials we teach in the various instructional fields, in teaching procedures, in the spirit of human relationships. Curriculum development today calls for actions of many kinds on many different fronts. That is why we can all have an important part in the process; it is why we must all make our distinctive contributions to the process. Some of us will write curriculum materials, some will organize and lead study groups, some will use these materials in our teaching, some will shape major policies, while some of us will do many or all of these things.

It is of crucial importance, however, that all our separate actions add up to a major action—the conscious direction by the people of our society of educational change along the lines of desired objectives. There is almost no practical limit to the good we can do

with our schools, provided we, the people of the United States and of the world, can decide what we want to do, why we want to do it, and how anxious we are to see that it gets done. It is this conscious direction by us of the changes we want in our schools which provides the sense-making unification of all our efforts in curriculum development.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. To what extent do you accept the conception of democracy presented in this chapter? If you disagree with it, what conception of democracy would you prefer to use? To what extent is either conception a valid one for the purposes of guiding curriculum development?
2. How would you appraise the significance of each of the following characteristics for curriculum development today—comprehensiveness, coöperativeness, concreteness, continuity? Give illustrations of how these might work out in practice.
3. Can local determination of curriculum be justified in our modern age when transportation and communication have knit all regions of our nation and world more closely together? Why or why not?
4. Outline what you consider to be an ideal curriculum philosophy for meeting the future needs of people in our culture. What features, if any, would you include from previous eras of curriculum development?
5. What do you mean when you say (if you do!) that curriculum work should be “practical”? How would you suggest making local curriculum programs more practical in desirable directions?



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